Essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of non-profit organisations

by

Termica Rethabile Mashale

Dissertation presented for the degree of Doctor of Social Work in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University

Promoter: Professor LK Engelbrecht

December 2017

DECLARATION

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

December 2017

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Embarking on this PhD journey was an incredibly hard decision but I would never have been able to navigate it without the care and support of my supervisor, Professor Lambert Engelbrecht. Thank you for your tolerance, encouragement and jovial disposition that made some of the hardest times bearable.

I'd also like to extend my gratitude to:

- The National Institute for the Humanities and Social Sciences (NHISS) for the financial and collegiate support over the years.
- The Stellenbosch Graduate School for the meticulous administration, open door policy and encouragement at all times.
- My mother, Rosie Mashale, husband and children who saw me through my highs and lows of being a student.
- My research participants who opened their doors to me and generously gave of their time and ideas.

ABSTRACT

Non-profit management, in the social services, is an area of growing scholarly interest but is seldom understood in the context of development. The evidence that exists in management tasks and governance is derived from corporate governance and management which differs significantly from that of managing social services. Furthermore, the voluntary nature of the management committees of social services organisations means the transactional relationship that an employer and employee have does not exist. Thus, volunteers are morally and statutorily bound to the organisation but can withhold their services and time without suffering any punitive measures.

The body of knowledge that exists on volunteers is primary focussed on the volunteers who intrinsically want to work at the coalface of operations to the neglect of the volunteers who serve on the management committees of social service organisations. Moreover, with the changing world, the face of volunteerism is fast changing shape and operating across boarders in search of purpose, adventure and desire to see the world. With the face of volunteerism changing, research needs to keep abreast as it directly impacts the services offer by social services and non-profits.

South African policies and legislation, ill define the role and responsibilities of volunteers on management committees of non-profit organisations (NPOs) and further confound issues in advocating for developmental social services and capacity building, yet do not adequately define it in practice for small to large non-profits. The social work profession, particularly as practised in the non-profit sector, tremendously impacts and is best positioned to support both beneficiaries and management of NPOs. Therefore, a keener understanding of volunteers and their role as governors on the management committees of non-profits is key in unlocking the capacity that volunteers bring to organisations in order to bolster the human resources of an organisation.

The study explored and described the essential management tasks as performed by volunteers on the management committees of social service non-profit organisations in the Western Cape. This was done by synthesising the essential management tasks from literature and how they are implemented in practice by volunteers in NPOs. By deductively synthesising the essential management tasks, the researcher was able to define the scope and boundaries of the

research, offer meaningful definitions and models for which the governance work by volunteers could be explored and understood.

The empirical study and the findings were analysed in line with the data categories as identified in the essential management tasks, namely: strategic planning, human resources management, financial management, transformation/change management, project management, fundraising, formation, communications and systems management, monitoring and evaluation, and public relations and stakeholder management. Subthemes were identified from the empirical data in accordance with the practice and narratives of the research participants.

The findings indicate that volunteers prioritise management tasks based on organisational reputational risk to donors, depending on capacity within the management committee and do not adopt an integrated approach to management tasks. The volunteers' roles on management committees require more formalisation, clarification on the various levels of management and the accountability that is bestowed on volunteers at the echelons of power within NPOs. Additionally, volunteers need education on their roles and responsibilities so they can carry out their governance of NPOs.

Recommendations were made along the literature categories, with specific recommendations under reach category. Generally, the main recommendations are the need to educate volunteers on their roles and responsibilities and the statutory requirements thereof, educate staff on the role of volunteers and training of volunteers on the integration of management tasks so that organisations are viewed in their integrated holistic sense rather than fragmented parts that do not make a whole.

OPSOMMING

Nie-winsgewende bestuur in maatskaplike dienste is ’n groeiende area wat kundiges se belangstelling wek, maar dit word meermale nie binne die konteks van maatskaplike ontwikkeling verstaan nie. Bewyse wat bestaan oor bestuurstake en beheer, het vanuit korporatiewe beheer en bestuur ontwikkel en verskil aansienlik van die bestuur van maatskaplike dienste. Die vrywillige aard van bestuurskomitees van maatskaplike diensorganisasies behels voorts dat die transaksionele verhouding tussen ’n werkgewer en werknemer nie bestaan nie. Vrywilligers is dus moreel en statutêr tot ’n organisasie verbind, maar kan hulle dienste enige tyd onttrek, sonder om aan strafregtelike gevolge onderhewig te wees.

Die kennisbasis wat oor vrywilligers bestaan, fokus primêr op vrywilligers wie intrinsiek voorsteliniewerk wil verrig, tot nadeel van vrywilligers wie op die bestuurskomitees van maatskaplike diensorganisasies dien. Verder, in ’n veranderende wêreld, is die voorkoms van vrywilligers vinnig besig om te verander, oor grense heen, omdat mense sekere doelwitte wil bereik, avonture wil beleef en die wêreld wil verken. Met die voorkoms van vrywilligerwerk wat verander, moet navorsing op die voorpunt wees, omdat vrywilligers regstreeks op maatskaplike dienste impakteer, wat deur nie-winsgewende organisasies gelewer word.

Suid Afrikaanse beleide en wetgewing, definieer die rol en verantwoordelikhede van vrywilligers op bestuurskomitees van nie-winsgewende organisasies (NWOs) nie voldoende nie en verwar sekere aangeleenthede in hul voorspraak vir ontwikkelingsgerigte maatskaplike dienste en kapasiteitsbou. Die maatskaplikewerk-professie, soos dit in die nie-winsgewende omgewing gepraktiseer word, het ’n groot impak en is die beste geposisioneer om ondersteuning te bied aan begunstigdes en besture van NWOs. Daarom is ’n beter begrip van vrywilligers in die beheer van bestuurskomitees van nie-winsgewende organisasies ’n sleutel tot die onsluiting van die kapasiteit wat vrywilligers na organisasies bring, ten einde die menslike hulpbronne van organisasies te versterk.

Hierdie studie verken en beskryf die essensiële bestuurstake soos dit verrig word deur vrywilligers op die besuurskomitees van maatskaplike nie-winsgewende organisasies in die Weskaap. Dit is gedoen deur middel van ’n sintese van essensiële bestuurstake vanuit die literatuur en hoe dit in die praktyk deur vrywilligers in NWOs toegepas word. Deur ’n

deduktiewe sintese van essensiële bestuurstake, was die navorser in staat om die omvang en grense van die navorsing te stel, en om betekenisvolle definisies en modelle aan te bied om beheersing deur vrywilligers te verken en te verstaan.

Die empiriese studie en bevindinge is ontleed, ooreenstemmend met die datakategorieë, wat vanuit die essensiële bestuurstake geïdentifiseer is, naamlik: strategies beplanning, menslike hulpbronnebestuur, finansiële bestuur, transformasie/veranderingsbestuur, projekbestuur, fondswerwing, kommunikasie en sisteembestuur, monitering en evaluering, en die bestuur van openbare verhoudings en belanghebbendes. Subtemas is geïdentifiseer vanuit die empiriese data, op grond van die praktyke en narratiewe van die navorsingsdeelnemers.

Die bevindinge toon aan dat die vrywilligers prioritiseer bestuurstake gebaseer op die reputasies en risiko's van donateurs, afhangende van die kapasiteit van die besuurskomitee, en hulle benader bestuurstake nie geïntegreerd nie. Die rolle van vrywilligers op bestuurskomitees vereis meer formalisering, klarifisering op verskillende bestuursvlakke, en verantwoordbaarheid van magte, wat deur NWOs aan vrywilligers toegedeel word. Voorts benodig vrywilligers meer opleiding oor hulle rolle en verantwoordelikhede ten einde die beheer van NWOs te kan deurvoer.

Aanbevelings word gemaak na aanleiding van die literatuurkategorieë, met spesifieke aanbevelings ten opsigte van elke kategorie. In die algemeen fokus die hoofaanbevelings op die behoefte vir opleiding van vrywilligers oor hulle rolle en verantwoordelikhede en die statutêre vereistes daarvan, die opleiding van personeel oor die rol van vrywilligers, en opleiding aan vrywilligers oor die integrering van bestuurstake, sodat organisasies holisties beskou kan word, in plaas van gefragmenteerde dele sonder 'n geheel.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.1 Preliminary literature study and rationale

In South Africa, the provision of social development services is informed by the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a) which provides a blue print for the transformation of social services in post-apartheid South Africa. The White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a) emphasises a developmental approach to social welfare. The post-apartheid government's adoption of a developmental approach was a departure from the previously residual paternalistic approach to social service delivery that characterised the apartheid dispensation. Thus, the developmental approach is focused on an empowering, rights-based and inclusive practice approach to socio-economic development in South Africa (Habib & Taylor, 1999; Patel, 2005; Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014). Within this context, social development can be understood as a planned process of social change that is designed to promote the well-being of the population as a whole in conjunction with a dynamic process of economic development (Midgley, 1995; Mazibuko & Gray, 2004; Dominelli, 2010).

Developmental social services are delivered in South Africa through the state and the non-profit sector (also known as the nongovernmental sector) (Lombard, 2008). While the state continues to be the main mechanism through which services are delivered to the poor and marginalised, non-profit organisations (NPOs) have become significant role players whom government recognises and incentivises through funding to deliver services where government cannot reach (Patel & Wilson, 2003; Patel & Hochfeld, 2008; Lombard, 2008; Department of Social Development, 2011).

1.1.1 The South African non-profit landscape and legislation

South Africa has an estimated 100 904 registered NPOs as per the 2012/2013 NPO audit conducted by the National Department of Social Development's (DSD) NPO Directorate (Department of Social Development, 2013). NPOs are regulated by the Non-Profit Organisations Act of 1997 (RSA, 1997b), which aims to provide an enabling policy context in which these non-profit organisations may flourish. Dyck and Neubert (2009) define an NPO's primary mission as being to advocate and model social,

cultural, legal or environmental change. In addition, Kinicki and Williams (2009) concur by saying that some NPOs render services to service users without making a profit, and with the common aim of improving aspects of human welfare. Within this context, the term "social services" is defined according the International Classification of Non-profit Organisations (ICNPO) and refers to the myriad of welfare programmes made available through private welfare organisations to individuals, groups, families and communities in need of special assistance (Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014).

The NPO Act (RSA, 1997b) clearly defines three types of registration pathways for social service organisations, namely as voluntary associations, trusts or non-profit companies. NPOs rendering social work services are registered with the NPO Directorate as voluntary associations. Some requirements to register as a voluntary association include annual reporting to the Directorate of NPOs, governance by a management committee, maintaining financial records, and the organisation must have a constitution or founding document that outlines operations and accountability (RSA, 1997b; Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014). Moreover, registration as an NPO automatically means that all voluntary social service organisations have to comply with standardised statutory guidelines offered in the NPO Act (RSA, 1997b). The aforementioned compliance further extends to other pertinent legislation and frameworks pertaining to the operations of legal entities in the country, such as the Independent Code of Good Governance for NPOs (Inyathelo, 2012), the King Report III (Price Water Coopers, 2009) and the DSD Financial Policy (DSD, 2011).

There are varying reasons why NPOs decide to register. The most common motivation for registration by NPOs is to gain legitimacy for operations, define accountability and governance lines, and to access donor and government funding (DSD, 2011). Registration as an NPO is also a funding criterion for many funders, the DSD and other government departments providing financial support to NPOs (Barber, 1991; DSD, 2011). Although NPO registrations have more than doubled from the 49 826 registered NPOs in 2007/08, to 76 175 by the end of March 2011, and 100 940 in 2013 as per the DSD NPO database, 36 428 NPOs had been found noncompliant and deregistered in 2012/2013, indicating both a demand for the services rendered by NPOs but also noncompliance with the NPO Act (Kelly, Rau & Stern, 2010; DSD 2013).

Although there are many reasons why NPOs are deregistered, one of the determining reasons point to inadequate management of these organisations (De V. Smit, 2014).

1.1.2 Management of NPOs

NPOs, in order to function and meet their intended mission and objectives, are required to perform management tasks effectively and efficiently (Lewis, Packard & Lewis, 2012). Globally and in South Africa, management of social service NPOs has its roots in the corporate and commerce fields with practices that have been transplanted into the NPO sector (Whitley, 1989; Anhier, 2005). However, management of NPOs specifically within the context of the social service professions has distinct features, owing to a focus on the well-being of social service users (Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014).

For the social service professions and specifically social work, management can be defined as a planned process designed to achieve a desired end by organising resources and people in an effective way while evaluating and revising plans accordingly (Lewis et al., 2012). Management tasks performed by managers in organisations draw on four functions of management, which are planning, organising, leading and control, as originally identified by Fayol (1949). Management tasks are the operationalization of these four management functions. Examples of management tasks in social service organisations include project management, programme management, human resources management and financial resources management (Druker, 1986; Whitley, 1989; Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014).

The execution of management tasks implies that managers must have particular knowledge and skills of how to lead thriving organisations (Anheier, 2000; Anheier, 2005; Kong, 2007). While *corporate Boards* are in the position to appoint competent managers, whose remunerations are according to their positions, and rigorous processes guide their recruitment and selection, *management committees* of NPOs in contrast rely heavily on volunteers, who are chiefly unpaid and have a charitable interest at the core (Inyathelo, 2012).

Furthermore, despite the guidelines offered by government legislation, policy

documents and frameworks for good governance of NPOs as already discussed, the NPO Act (RSA, 1997b) neither outlines the required competencies of management committees of NPOs, nor requires training to manage these NPOs. As a result, the management of many organisations are left to the discretion of those in the leadership and/or volunteers that are recruited and willing to serve on NPO management committees. This substantiates the statement by Brown and Kalegaonkar (2002) who assert that many volunteers who are involved in NPOs are gifted social entrepreneurs or visionaries who respond to a need in the community, but have little experience in leadership and managing organisations that grow past the point of an informal coordinated intervention.

1.1.3 Volunteers on management committees of NPOs

Volunteers can be described as people who supply their time, resources, labour for the production of goods and services for the benefit of others at virtually no cost (Everatt, Habib, Maharaj & Nyar, 2005; Krugell, 2010). Furthermore, volunteers vary from unpaid to stipend paid individuals, local community members who participate in NPOs' core operations and programmes delivery, individuals who give skills for periods of time, and professionals who offer pro-bono expertise on an ad hoc basis that bolster the management and functioning of organisations (Everatt et al., 2005; Snyder & Omoto, 2008). In South Africa, the unique situation is that it is mostly local community members who are serving on management committees of NPOs and they are performing a variety of management tasks (Hunter & Ross, 2013; De Jager, 2014). One social service NPO has, for example, more than 112 service branches with volunteers performing management tasks in three provinces (ACVV, 2013).

However, there is only anecdotal and contrasting documentation of the current volunteer landscape in South Africa and specifically within the social services NPO sector in terms of who these volunteers are, what is the nature and scope of the essential management tasks they perform and how they are performing these tasks (Habib & Taylor, 1999; Swilling & Russell, 2001; Krugell, 2010; De Jager, 2014; Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014). South African research on volunteers in the social service professions, and specifically in social work, has largely focussed on volunteer

motivation and incentives (Chandan, Cambanis, Bhana, Boyce, Makoae, Mukoma & Phakiti, 2008); retired professionals and how they can be mobilised to contribute skills and expertise in the social service field (Van Rensburg, 2012); social workers and their role in managing volunteers in welfare organisations (Damon, 2007); and more recently, how to motivate and empower volunteers as part of social work practice within the context of established organisations (Ellis, 2012; Patel, Schmid & Hochfeld, 2012). Thus, research on the nature and scope of essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs, and specifically their managerial tasks that affect the daily operations and programmes delivery of social service NPOs, is long overdue and of particular interest to service delivery in the social service professions (Dart, Bradshaw, Murray & Wolpin, 1996).

1.2 Problem statement

South African scholars and researchers such as De Jager (2014), Engelbrecht (2014) and Reyneke (2014), highlight the need for distinctive management practices tailored to fit the NPO sector taking into consideration the transformation agenda of the Independent Code of Good Governance for NPOs in South Africa (Inyathelo, 2012), the King Report III (Price Water Coopers, 2009), BBBEE (RSA, 2013a) and the DSD Financial Policy (DSD, 2011), within a social development paradigm as outlined by the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a). More specifically, origins of NPO management have largely focused on transplanting management practices from business and commerce and superimposing them on the social service NPO sector. This has led to unclear defined management tasks, especially those tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of social service NPOs (Fisher, 2009; Patel, 2009; Patel et al., 2012). Although some contemporary South African scholars (Damon, 2007; Chandan et al., 2008; Ellis, 2012; Patel et al., 2012; Van Rensburg, 2012) refer to volunteers within a social development paradigm, the nature and scope of essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs remain a phenomenon that calls for empirical research in an effort to gain an understanding of how to support NPOs within the parameters of current legislation, policies and frameworks.

1.2.1 Main research questions

Flowing from the problem statement, this dissertation focusses on the following formulated research questions:

- *What* are the distinctive characteristics of the volunteers on management committees of NPOs?
- *What* is the nature and scope of the essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs?
- *How* do volunteers on management committees of NPOs operationalize management functions (planning, organising, leading and control) into management tasks?

1.3 Goals and objectives

The aim of this research is to gain an understanding of the nature and scope of essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs within the context of the South African social development paradigm.

In order to achieve this aim, the following objectives were formulated:

- to contextualise and describe social service NPOs within South Africa's social development paradigm, and critically examine the current laws and policies pertaining to the NPO sector, which have implications for volunteers on management committees of NPOs;
- to analyse existing international and local theories and the body of knowledge on volunteerism within the NPO sector;
- to describe and synthesise the management tasks, both distinctive and perceived, that volunteers are expected to execute within the context of NPOs, based on functions embedded in appropriate management schools of thought;
- to empirically explore the nature and scope of the essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs; and
- to present recommendations to NPOs and the relevant institutions regarding the findings of the study.

1.4 Clarification of concepts:

This section outlines and clarifies the concepts and terms used in this research report by providing definitions, and their application in this study. Thus, by operationalising these terms for the purpose of the study, the reader, assumes a common understanding of meanings attributed to key words and concepts by the researcher. These concepts are presented below, in no particular order of significance.

1.4.1 Organisations

An organisation, as defined by Lewis, Packard and Lewis (2012) is as a group of individuals working towards a common good. Hughes and Wearing (2007) describe organisations as working machines with complex and multiple parts that are designed to mechanically work together for efficiency and increased productivity. This definition implies a very mechanistic and potentially bureaucratic formation in which individuals are compartmentalised into sections doing their work for the greater benefit of the organisation. For the purpose of this study, Lewis et al, (2012) definition provides a more apt summation of what is meant by organisation throughout this research report.

1.4.2 Social service organisations

The terms “human service organisations” or “social service organisations”, often used interchangeably, emerged in the 1970s to refer to organisations that were concerned with social services, mental health, health, education and criminal justice services (Austin, 2002). Social service organisations are those organisations primarily concerned with the welfare of people, are often for non-profit and are nongovernmental in nature and legal composition (Lewis, Packard & Lewis, 2012; Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014).

Furthermore, there is growing scholarship that recognises social service organisations as being those organisations primarily concerned with social services, and where social workers are employed as the dominant group in the professional settings to render services primarily to individuals, groups and or communities (Austin, 2002).

As Austin (2002) notes, the social work profession has emerged as the primary profession in the social service organisations and its delivery of services, precisely because by its very nature, it is a fluid and responsive profession concerned with the social welfare of people. Therefore, an understanding of social service organisations needs to encompass the responsiveness of the carer towards the client, and the nature and culture of the organisation towards the social worker as a carer.

Thus, the notion of social service refers primarily to the target population that receives service from organisations. Rankin and Engelbrecht (2014) further note that these social service organisations are non-profit in nature, often operate within the policy framework of government but are independent and are often referred to by interchangeable terms such as community based organisations, faith based or nongovernmental organisations. In this report, social service organisations are thus, those organisations concerned with the welfare of human beings in society and employ social service professionals (social workers, student social workers, auxiliary social workers, child and youth care workers etc.) as carers for service delivery.

1.4.3 Non-profit organisations

In the South African NPO Act (RSA, 1997b) an organisation is constituted by a minimum of three individuals, an appointed financial officer and a guiding constitution articulating the mission, vision, objectives and procedures for decision-making and authority within the legal framework of non-profit organisations. Furthermore, a non-profit organisation can be a Trust, Company or other Association of persons working for public benefit purpose (RSA, 1997b).

In the non-profit sector, organisations range in size, form and geographical operation and can be small and local, to big and international organisations with the structure following the organisational strategy over the years (Ogliastri, Jager & Prado, 2015).

Non-profit organisations, particularly social service organisations, tend to be driven either by their strategies or their social mission and navigate the tension between the two to acquire financial resources to sustain them over time (Ogliastri, Jager & Prado, 2015).

In South Africa, where elements of the organisational structure are legislated in the NPO Act (RSA, 1997b), managerial competence means learning to manage stakeholder relationships with a diverse group of individuals who may not necessarily share the same vision, mission or have the managerial skills to support the manager in steering the organisation in the desired direction. Furthermore, environmental changes and developments such as the use of technology, demographic and economic changes create choices for managers to respond to by either implementing organisational strategies for change or remaining the same and risking their demise (Young, Koenig, Najam & Fisher, 1999). Thus, the description and definitions are wholly embraced in the use of the term non-profit organisation through this report.

1.4.4 Management

The field of management has its roots in commerce and the business sector, but management has come to be widely utilised in the public and social services (Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014). Management is the tasks and activities performed by managers within the hierarchy of an organisation (Hellriegel et al., 2018). Furthermore, there are other terms that have been used interchangeable, sometimes incorrectly so to refer to management practice.

1.4.5 Governance

Governance is a pervasive term that has been used to refer to a catchall phrase to capture the challenges faced by governments, the way governments operate as well as the desired state (Tsekpo, 2015). There are as many definitions of governance as there are books written on the subject. The United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) offers a comprehensive definition and defines governance as a:

> *"System of values, policies and institutions by which a society manages its economic, political and social affairs through interactions within and among the state, civil society and private sector. It is the way a society organises itself to make and implement decisions - achieving mutual understanding, agreement and action. It comprises the mechanisms and processes for citizens and groups to articulate their interests, mediate their differences and exercise their legal rights and obligations. It is the rules, institutions and practices that set limits and provide incentives for individuals, organisations and firms.*

> *Governance, including its social, political and economic dimensions, operates at every level of human enterprise, be it the household, village, municipality, nation, region or globe" (UNDP, 2009:7).*

The UNDP definition is all-encompassing and aims to articulate governance at the various tiers of government and society. In essence, governments function at various levels but their most significant impact is on the macro scale and mezzo scales by providing policy frameworks, national or provincial agendas to foster enabling environments for the implementing partners such as businesses, non-profit organisations and some arms or departments of government tasked with service provision (Said, Jaafar & Atan, 2015). Thus, in this study, governance relates to the above UNDP definition as applied in social service organisations with particular focus on *the 'mechanisms and processes for citizens and groups to articulate their interests, mediate their differences and exercise their legal rights and obligations'* in their mandate as outlined in the NPO Act.

1.4.6 Management committee governance (Board governance)

In the business or private sector, Board governance relates to the conduct of the executives or shareholders on the board which gives policy direction for divisions and sub-divisions' managers to execute (Said, Jaafar & Atan, 2015). Thus, board effectiveness is measured in the productivity of the business and the profit margin. In the non-profit sector, board effectiveness is drawing greater attention with board members tasked with the monitoring of management and ensuring accountability (Said, Jaafar & Atan, 2015).

Conversely, NPOs are legal entities which self-govern and manage several relationships with government and the private sector. The NPO Act (RSA, 1997b) notes that Board governance and how management committees conduct their operations as stipulated in the organisational Constitution, Memorandum of Incorporation or Trust Deed and the role of the NPO Directorate is to support organisations, ensure transparency and accountability. In this context, NPOs are therefore responsible for setting their own agenda, rely heavily on volunteers and the generosity of individuals to serve on the Board and do not distribute profits to

members and thus differ from its for-profit counterparts (Patel, 2009).

Consultants and practitioners in non-profit governance have historically focussed on developing training and toolkits that prescribe board roles and responsibilities that are often one-size fits all and fail to consider the incredible diversity and vastness of the sector (Hiland, 2015). Precisely because of their non-profit motive, those social service organisations require a different approach to governance and management as the empirical study aimed to elucidate. Thus, board governance in this study relates to the essential management tasks performed by volunteers in line with supporting the organisational development and as outlined in their founding documents (Constitution, Memorandum of Incorporation or Trust Deed).

1.4.7 Management committee

The non-profit Board or management committee is one of the only forces strategically positioned to support the capacity required to deliver on the organisational mission (Letts, et.al, 1999). Within South African non-profit organisations, members are primarily recruited from various sectors of life including members of the community who often have low educational attainment, prescripts and generic approaches are most likely to alienate Board members and not have the intended benefits. Furthermore, Patel (2009) notes that South African welfare services and community development programmes are primarily delivered by women and thus interventions and understandings of this sector need to take into account the gendered nature of welfare and the role women have occupied in history, which includes their exclusion from mainstream education and economic participation thereby bearing on their skillset and ability to be economically active.

Lastly, non-profit management committees seldom undergo performance reviews primarily because of the voluntary nature of their appointment and involvement; however, checks and balances are necessary if the organisation is to deliver on its mission and mandate. Therefore, for the purpose of the study, a management committee is the voluntary grouping of individuals with the common aim of sustaining a social service organization in order to deliver on its vision and mission.

1.4.8 Volunteers

Volunteers are defined as individuals or groups who engage in "freely chosen and deliberate helping activities that extend over time, are engaged in without expectation of reward or other compensation and often through formal organisations, and that are performed on behalf of causes or individuals who desire assistance" (Snyder & Omoto 2008: 3). In this research, a volunteer was defined as any individual involved in providing their labour and skills freely to a social service organisation on its management committee for the purpose of bolstering management capacity of a social service organisation.

1.5 Theoretical points of departure

In order to provide a context for the study, current laws, policies and protocols that are pertinent to the South African NPO sector were presented and analysed in conjunction with appropriate schools of thought in management and volunteerism.

Underpinned by Fayol's (1949) universal management functions (planning, organising, leading and controlling), this study also presented an empowerment approach to management tasks (such as human resources management, programme management and financial resources management) as a school of management thought. The empowerment approach to management tasks advocates that managers need adequate skills to actively participate in decision-making and promote managerial competencies that are inclusive, participatory, empowering and bridge cultural divides (Hadina, Middleton, Montana & Simpson, 2007). The empowerment approach contrasted conventional theories and schools of management by providing a focus on the building of capacity, embedding a sense of ownership, partnership, facilitation and equal participation (Barber, 1991; Hadina et al., 2007). This empowerment approach is closely aligned to the call for the delivery of developmental social services to marginalised communities in an empowering manner as promulgated in South African social welfare policies such as the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a), the NPO Act (RSA, 1997b) and the Department of Social Development's Financial Awards

for Non-Profit Organisations (DSD, 2011).

In addition, the social action theory of Parsons (1985) was presented due to its focus on the social order of structural voluntaristic aspects in macro, mezzo and micro systems as presented by the systems theory of Bronfenbrenner (1977) and Germain and Gitterman (1995), which offers a perspective for the understanding of volunteers within the social service professions.

1.6 Research design and method

This section briefly details the research design, research method, phases of the research, research methodology, sampling and data collection, and data analysis.

1.6.1 Research design

In order to explore and describe the nature and scope of essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs, an exploratory and descriptive research design is most appropriate as it allows for in-depth exploration of a particular issue instead of providing wide information on a topic. Babbie and Mouton (2006) state that exploratory research studies allow researchers the flexibility to probe the lived experiences and perceptions of people in their natural environments. Besides, exploratory research studies focus on areas that have not been studied, in which the researcher wants to develop initial ideas and/or to focus the research question (Babbie & Mouton, 2006; Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2008), such as attempting to gain an in-depth understanding of the nature and scope of essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs, which is a topical area with a dearth of literature and empirical study.

1.6.2 Research method

A qualitative research method was used to elicit rich descriptive data and tell the stories of participants in their own voices and language to give insights into their perceptions (De Vos, 2005; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). Conducting in-depth face-to-face interviews provided the researcher with an opportunity to focus the conversation with participants so as to elicit rich data for analysis. The research method is further

illustrated in the phases of the research below.

1.6.3 Phases of the research

This research consisted of two phases focusing on two particular sampling groups at appropriate intervals.

The first phase explored the profiles, perceptions and experiences of volunteers on management committees of different NPOs, in an effort to provide a robust description of the nature and scope of the essential management tasks they perform and how these tasks are performed. The NPOs were accordingly demarcated to social service organisations as defined by the International Classification of Non-profit Organisations (DSD 2012); which are primarily concerned with services such as family welfare, child protection, counselling and community work, and which fall within the social work remit and social development paradigm.

The second phase explored the experiences of paid social service professionals employed by the demarcated NPOs and who are affected by the managerial tasks performed by the volunteers as stated in the first phase of the research. This serves as an integral part of data verification, in order to gather extended insights into the implications of the management tasks performed by the aforementioned volunteers and to inform recommendations for empowerment of volunteers.

Due to the nature of the research phases, the researcher developed two different interview schedules for each of the phases of data collection. This allows collection of qualitative data, which were later verified and analysed thereby enriching the results of this study.

1.6.4 Research methodology

This research followed both deductive and inductive research approaches (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). From the literature study, the researcher used a deductive research approach to develop the interview schedules for the data collection, which also provided insight into the further development of themes for the second phase of the research. In addition, the researcher used an inductive approach to interpret the

research findings, which were presented in a research report.

1.6.4.1 Sampling and data collection

Sampling is defined as the "selection of elements from the study population to be included in the study" (Strydom, 2005a:194). The researcher has in-depth knowledge of the population, due to previous work experience in the sector of volunteerism and management of NPOs.

1.6.4.1.1 Sampling strategy

This research used nonprobability purposive sampling at both phases to select the geographical area, non-profit organisations, volunteers on management committees and professional staff to participate in the two phases of the research. Purposive sampling allows the researcher to select organisations that meet the criteria outlined in the next section, and thus only select participants who can provide the most relevant data for the study. The selection of participants was based on being representative of the sample group and that these participants possess the characteristics, opinions, ideas, knowledge and experiences about the subject of the research (Babbie & Mouton, 2006; Welman et al., 2008).

1.6.4.1.2 Target groups

Two different target groups were selected according to each of the research phases. These target groups are outlined below:

Phase 1:

This research focussed on *fifteen* (*15) different non-profit social service organisations* working in the Western Cape. Within each organisation, the researcher sampled *one (1) volunteer* serving on a management committee. The researcher also requested permission to use a database of over 50 organisations developed by the researcher's former employer, as well as the DSD online database to identify appropriate organisations for inclusion in the study. Using purposive sampling enables the researcher to develop strict selection criteria thereby allowing selection of only organisations that meet the sampling criteria. The criteria of NPOs and volunteers for

inclusion are that:

- the NPO must be legally registered with the DSD's Directorate of NPOs and be in possession of an up-to-date NPO registration number;
- the NPO must offer social development services to individuals, groups and communities;
- the NPO must have been in operation for at least two years to allow some maturity and be classified as a voluntary organisation;
- the volunteer and NPO must be geographically located in the Cape Metropole of the Western Cape;
- the volunteer must be on a management committee of the NPO, performing management tasks, and must have been in this position for a period of at least two years; and
- the volunteer must hold one of the three executive roles on the management committee (chairperson, treasurer and secretary) as stipulated by the NPO Act (RSA, 1997b) for registered NPOs in South Africa.

Phase 2:

The second phase comprises *fifteen* (*15) social service professional staff members* who are affected by the management of volunteers in the first phase, because they may be able to offer extended insights and expand on the management tasks performed by volunteers. Their inclusion criteria are as follows:

- the staff member must be a paid social service professional in a middle management position and employed by an organisation selected in phase 1;
- the staff member must work closely with volunteers who serve on a management committee; and
- the staff member must have been in this position for at least two years and have been affected by the management tasks performed by volunteers.

Thus, this research achieved a total number of *thirty (30) participants* as part of the overall sample.

1.6.4.2 Research instrument

As this research is a qualitative study, semi-structured interviews are most appropriate to capture the language and terminology used by volunteers and staff as they share their experiences. Semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions are described as conversations "organised around particular areas of interest, while allowing considerable flexibility, scope and depth" for exploration (Greeff, 2005:292). Therefore, semi-structured, face-to-face interviews were used due to their flexibility for deep probing on specific areas of the conversation, and for generating rich data. This approach provided confidential spaces for participants to share information that would not otherwise be shared in a focus group setting. See annexures 2 and 3 for the broad themes envisaged for the semi-structured interviews.

The data collection tools that were used are two tailored interview schedules for the semi-structured interviews with volunteers and professional staff respectively. In addition, the researcher recorded the all interviews using a digital recorder with the consent of the participants.

Two pilot studies were conducted with one volunteer on a management committee and one professional staff member in order to test the interview schedules and to allow the researcher to simulate the conditions of the study. This allowed the execution of all necessary amendments to the instruments prior to the commencement of the study (Strydom, 2005b).

1.6.4.3 Data analysis

After gathering the data, all the recorded interviews required transcription prior to being organised and analysed (De Vos, 2005). The researcher structured and made meaning of the data through a process of critical reflection, seeking explanations, making linkages and contemplating reasons for actions and behaviours using qualitative data analysis techniques as a tool to group and refine themes. The qualitative data analysis techniques allow for data to be processed and organised analytically by means of trees, branches and nodes, to group and visually represent data in social science research which is similar to the seven-step process of constant comparative analytic process initially developed by Lincoln and Guba (1985; Bezeley, 2007). The data was then presented in an organised and coherent way by means of

themes, sub-themes and categories.

1.6.5 Main ethical considerations

This research took into account the main ethical considerations in social research. Confidentiality, anonymity and informed consent are the main ethical considerations as the research aims to explore the perceptions and experiences of volunteers and professional staff of non-profit organisations.

All the organisations and participants gave informed consent prior to engaging them in the research process as well as prior to commencing each interview. The researcher provided a full explanation of the purpose of the study, explaining how the data were collected and utilised. The researcher then provided participants with an opportunity to give or decline consent for voluntary participation in the research by completing informed consent forms.

This is a low risk study as outlined by the Departmental Ethical Screening Committee (DESC) of Stellenbosch University who also provided ethical clearance prior to the commencement of this study. In addition to all these ethical precautions, the researcher is registered with the South African Council for Social Service Professions, which provides the Code of Ethics for the social work profession. Lastly, the research supervisor provided additional control for ethical considerations.

1.7 The structure of the report

The chapters for this research report are as follows:

Chapter one of this research report introduces the research study and what it aims to achieve and outlines the plan implemented for conducting the research. This chapter provides a useful synopsis of the larger report presented by defining the problem statement the research sought to address, the main goals of the study, a brief note on research methodology and the main ethical considerations. This chapter is derived from the proposal submitted and approved by the Higher Education Degrees Admissions Committee at Stellenbosch University.

Chapter two is a contextualisation and description of social service non-profit organisations (NPOs) within South Africa's social development paradigm. This chapter also critically examines current laws and policies pertaining to the social service NPO sector, which have implications for volunteers on management committees of social service NPOs. This is an important chapter as it sets the legislative macro policies that social service NPOs and professionals are expected to abide by in their professional conduct.

Chapter three describes and provides an analysis of existing international and local theories and the body of knowledge on volunteerism within the NPO sector. It further details the various types of volunteers and the management of volunteers within social service organisations.

Chapter four is a description and synthesis of the essential management tasks, both distinctive and perceived, that volunteers are expected to execute within the context of social service NPOs. These management tasks are expounded on based on functions embedded in appropriate management schools of thought and applied to the South African context with a particular focus on the social service NPOs.

Chapter five outlines the methodology of the empirical study by discussing the research design and approach, the research process, the pilot study and the detail outline of the research ethics as pertains to this research study.

Chapter six details the findings from the empirical study with insights from both sample stages. This chapter forms the basis for which chapter seven is developed outlining the conclusions and recommendations.

1.8 Impact

A research study that takes into consideration the local context and explores the management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs is significant in producing local knowledge that contributes to the broader transformation of developmental social services. Furthermore, there is a call by local scholars for a localised understanding of management of NPOs taking into account the

unique South African context (Anheier, 2000; Patel et al., 2012; Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014).

The study findings thus aide the understanding of volunteers on management committees, and provide social workers with a departure point of how to facilitate capacity building of volunteers as outlined by DSD in the Financial Award Policy (DSD, 2011). The findings of the study are can be extended to trainers, donors and government departments to support NPOs in a manner that is empowering, sustainable and yields impact.

1.9 Connection with doctoral programmes of the department

Research on management in social work, particularly within a social development context, is one of the areas of interest in the Department of Social Work at the University of Stellenbosch. The research topic is in line with the Department's broad research expertise, and therefore, contributes to existing research and promotion of future research in this subject area.

CHAPTER 2 - SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIAL WELFARE AND POLICY CONTEXT

2.1 Introduction

Under apartheid rule, South African welfare policies and services reflected the racially segregated society that predominantly benefited the white minority population and systematically marginalised the black and coloured populations; the effects of which continue to haunt the post-apartheid African National Congress (ANC) led government (Midgley, 2001; Visser, 2004). Apartheid social engineering regulated the spatial positioning of the different race groups while deliberately under developing the black population through legislation that regulated movement, limited people's rights to association and augmented the economic status of the racial groups through job reservation laws for white South Africans (Habib & Taylor, 1999; Swilling, Russell & Habib, 2002).

Apartheid architecture was designed in social and economic policies, enforced through political propaganda and a militarised police force to ensure compliance and predominantly based on divide and rule military tactics (Habib & Taylor, 1999). Social welfare, like most other institutions under the apartheid government of the National Party, was largely reserved for white people with blacks receiving marginal benefits, if at all (McKendrick, 1998; Patel, 2005; Davids & Theron, 2014). The endemic apartheid segregation was evinced by the division of welfare boards into 24 regions under the National Welfare Act No. 100 of 1978 (Patel, 2005). This division of services and centres of power further entrenched and systematised the regulation of the different welfare services' provision and informed the apartheid government's on going unequal distribution of welfare services through both state entities and the funding to non-profit organisations (Patel & Hochfeld, 2008; Patel, Schmid & Hochfeld, 2012; Davids & Theron, 2014). The effects of which were that whites benefited from the lion's share of the services leaving a society with vast resources disparities.

It is therefore, of no surprise that when the post-apartheid dispensation came into government in 1994, it inherited a racially divided country characterised by vast inequality and high levels of poverty and the need to reformulate legislation and policies that were inclusive and promoted equality (Patel & Hochfeld, 2008).

Thus, this chapter explores some of the legislation pertaining to social welfare in South Africa with a specific focus on non-profit organisations as mechanisms and key role players in the delivery of these transformative and vital services for individuals, families and communities. Secondly, it explores the policy and legal framework of the South African social services, with particular focus on the role of non-profit organisations (NPOs) and the implications for volunteers serving on the management committees of these key role player organisations. Lastly, theories of governance, pertaining to the management committees of NPOs were detailed and applied to the South African social services.

2.2 The White Paper for Social Welfare

With the advent of democracy and a newly elected government, South Africa began its legal reform through the promulgation of new laws, policies and the adoption of a progressive Constitution, which would usher in a new dawn for the country and its citizens. The aims of the new laws and policies were attempts to redress systemic and lived inequality while outlining a new social culture of inclusion, equality and equity by respecting the rights of every citizen. One such policy was the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a), which sought to transform the social services by promulgating a developmental approach to the delivery of social welfare. The developmental approach was meant to foster the empowerment of individuals and communities by providing a rights-based context for an inclusive practice approach to socio-economic development in South Africa (Habib & Taylor, 1999; Patel, 2005; Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014). In the South African social welfare sector, the gazetting and adoption of the White for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a), sought to transform the provision of social services from a paternalistic welfare system, in accordance with the national transformation agenda by championing a developmental approach to social service delivery (Gray, 2006; Davids & Theron, 2014; Patel, 2014).

The White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a) made strong emphasis on the role of the social work profession's role in building social cohesion, upholding rights empowering and educating others in a developmental approach (Patel, 2005). However, there has been a slow move towards transformation, which has resulted in

a post-apartheid society negotiating precarious race relations, battling social economic development issues while competing on a global scale (Habib, 2005; O'Brien, 2005).

Current democratic South Africa is a country burdened by the legacy of its past, riddled by poverty, inequality and a growing unemployed youth population. The country is home to an estimated 54 million people with a quarter of the youth and adult population unemployed weighing very heavily on already taxed social welfare and economic systems (O'Brien, 2005; StatsSA, 2011; StatsSA, 2014a).

The growing population coupled with increasing poverty rates and regressing health outcomes as a result of the HIV/AIDS pandemic, ailing education system and severe housing backlogs has placed already squeezed government welfare services under severe strain and causing concern over the urgency required to address these social issues or else undermine the gains made during the peaceful transition (Gray & Mazibuko, 2002; O'Brien, 2005; Davids & Theron, 2014).

More worrisome, is that institutions and social conditions of post-apartheid South Africa continue to emulate the draconian apartheid society where white privilege and wealth coexisted with black poverty and deprivation and the significant gains made in transforming the social service have not adequately addressed glaring inequalities that threaten the future of South African society (Gray, 2006; Patel, 2014; Davids & Theron, 2014).

The social work profession, precisely as the frontline profession for the delivery of social welfare services through a developmental approach, has made slow progress in transforming from the residual and institutional approaches to social welfare for a variety of reasons that include the slow transformation of teaching and training within higher education, slowly changing culture of social work supervision, the predominantly white population occupying the management of social services and the limited investment in the professional development of social workers and managers (Gray & Mazibuko, 2002; Patel, 2005; Patel, 2008).

Moreover, the ANC government's steady shift to a neoliberal market based approach

to the economy with the expectation that the market would create trickle down benefits to the poor and disenfranchised, has not aided in the pace of actualising the mandate of the White Paper for Social Welfare nor created opportunities for progressive social gains (RSA, 1997a; Habib & Kotze, 2003).

Thus, as a broad macro policy and framework for the unique context of South Africa, the "developmental approach" has come under vast scrutiny in its achievement of its social and economic goals and the role of social workers as enabler and implementers of the approach.

2.3 Social development paradigm

Social development defies a compact definition and in the South African context it has become increasingly hard to synthesize a working definition because of the transitional nature of social welfare. Globally, the term social development seems to coalesce into a confusing discourse of rights, redistribution and participation (Gray, 2010). This convergence of rights, redistribution and participation is particularly relevant for the South African context where gross inequalities exist because of the historical baggage of apartheid (Midgley, 2001). The post-apartheid South African Constitution and government adopted policies and laws that aimed to uphold these three tenets of rights, redistribution and equal participation through neoliberal economic policies such as the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) which was later abandoned for the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) and Accelerated and Shared Growth-South Africa (ASGISA) that have culminated in the development of the National Development Plan 2030 (Midgley, 2001; Habib & Kotze, 2003; Visser, 2004; National Planning Commission (NPC), 2012).

Midgley (1995) defines social development as a planned process of change that is designed to promote the wellbeing of the population alongside a dynamic economic development process. The White Paper for Social Welfare adopts Midgley's (1995) definition of social development and further defines social development's objective as being: *"to bring about sustained improvement in the well-being of the individual, family, community and society at large. The reduction or eradication of mass poverty, inequality and conditions of underdevelopment are widely accepted indicators of*

social progress." (RSA, 1997a: 99).

Furthermore, Paiva (1977) defined social development as the capacity of people to work continuously for their own society's welfare, which includes the structural change, socio-economic integrations, institutional development and renewal. This is an important definition as it focuses on the capabilities of people and their ability to affect change in their society through the development of their capacity to respond to challenges.

Patel (2005) elaborates that social development refers to the policies and programmes designed to meet the needs of people, promote rights, manage social problems and facilitate maximum access to opportunities for individuals and communities for the promotion of social inclusion and empowerment. This definition concurs with the White Paper for Social Welfare which states that the main dimensions of social development are to improve social welfare, health, education, housing, urban and rural development, and land reform so that individuals can be productive citizens (RSA, 1997a).

In the course of their work, social workers assist people to meet their physical, mental, social and societal needs regardless of whether a developmental approach is adopted. The adoption of a developmental approach to intervention methods and activities is a commitment to the promotion of social change, justice, social cohesion and development (Lombard, 2015).

The three themes (rights, redistribution and participation) echoed in Patel (2005) and further synthesised in Gray (2010), are particularly relevant in the South African context where the history of the country is mired by divisive policies that strove to ensure that a large segment of the population was under-developed, marginalised and denied basic rights and access to economic participation (Midgley, 2001; O'Brien, 2005; Patel, 2008).

Therefore, it is no wonder that the post-apartheid social welfare policies mandated two main programmes: social security and welfare services (Patel, Hochfeld, Graham & Selipsky, 2008). Social security has been found to be the most effective poverty

alleviation programmes by offering children, the elderly, disabled and families in distress cash transfers using means testing or some predefined measure for qualification (Patel, Hochfeld, Graham & Selipsky, 2008). Whereas, the more remedial and social treatment approaches have made slower progress in transformation of welfare services but also the limited national research into efficacy of these intervention has provided a fragmented view on the progress of the social development approach in welfare service provision (Patel, Hochfeld, Graham & Selipsky, 2008). While progress has been made in the delivery of these two fundamental programmes, South Africa has not adequately implemented the social development approach to social welfare and therefore, not realised the prospective gains that were envisaged by the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a; Patel, 2014). Patel (2014) argues that the slow implementation of the social development approach to social services has resulted in some of the glaring gaps in development, inequality and systematic exclusion of those less fortunate and for whom the safety nets are provided either through state or non-state services. In the South African context, the main role players in the delivery of social services are government departments and their personnel as well as social service non-profit organisations. The next sections takes a closer look at these role players who are tasked with the implementation of the White Paper for Social Welfare.

2.4 Social service NPOs

Organisations, although multifaceted and intricate, can be defined as a group of individuals who have regular and on-going set(s) of structured activities working towards a common goal (Lewis, Packard & Lewis, 2012). Daft and Steers (1986) describe organisations as social entities that are goal-directed, have deliberate structured activities and identifiable boundaries within which people operate. By virtue of defining non-profits as organisations, it is implied that they have some institutional reality, which has an internal organisational structure, goals, which direct the purpose of the organisation, and activities, which bring life to the goals and some legal incorporation (Anheier, 2005; StatsSA, 2014b).

The International Center for Not-For-Profit Law defines a non-profit organisation

(NPO) as any entity that reinvests surplus funds into pursuing its goals and does not distribute funds to owners or shareholders (Grobman, 2008). Chen (2015) notes that some examples of NPOs include charitable organizations, philanthropy, trade unions and public arts organizations and in some countries, are exempt from income and property taxation.

Furthermore, Statistics South Africa (StatsSA, 2014b) borrows the UN System of National Accounts' definition which define NPOs as being "*legal or social entities created for the purpose of producing goods and services whose status does not permit them to be a source of income, profit or other financial gain for the units that establish, control or finance them*" (StatsSA, 2014b:vi).

NPOs can be further divided into sectors and types depending on the services they render. Human service organisations are uniquely different because they are defined by the common mission of improving the lives of people served by the organisations (Lewis, Packard, Lewis, 2012). Moreover, human service organisations are called various things, in South Africa; they are called social service organisations (Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014).

While the term social services has parallels with human social service organisations, the term "social service" is used to refer to the various services that are offered to individuals, groups, families and communities and can be offered via the government or non-profits (Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014). In particular, the term "social services" aims to distinguish the broad services that fall within the welfare sector which at times are concerned with animal welfare, environmental welfare and or related fields (Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014). The International Classification of Non-profit Organizations (ICNPO); which is widely adopted by the South African National Department of Social Development, thus defines social services as those organisations and institutions providing "human and social services to a community or target population" (Salamon & Anheier, 1996:14). Furthermore, social service organisations can either be governmental organisations or non-governmental organisations in the form of NPOs.

The social service organisations' target populations are further segregated into child welfare, youth services, family services, services to the elderly and disabled, self-help and personal development, income generation and emergency relief (Salamon & Anheier, 1996). It is also important to note that while social services are concerned with human welfare, they exist and operate within a macro and mezzo policy context that governs how these services are rendered; particularly in the non-profit sector. Therefore, the Department of Social Development's adoption of the ICNPO definition is significant because it further cements South Africa's commitment to international standards for human development and social justice goals within a regulatory framework that protects rights and promotes justice for all.

This commitment to international frameworks is particularly pertinent in the South African context where the primary role player in the delivery of social service programmes is government and supported by NPOs within a dual system (Patel, Hochfeld, Graham & Selipsky, 2008).

NPOs have unique characteristics in that they are institutionally independent of government, they do not have a profit motive, they are characterised by their voluntary association of individuals and their activities are financed through domestic and international donors making them autonomous and accountable to their donors and stakeholders (Davids & Theron, 2014).

2.4.1 Differences between businesses and NPOs

There has been a call for NPOs to formalize and be managed like corporate companies. However, there are specific differences in the goals and value base of NPOs and corporate companies. NPOs tend to have a social service bias, which implies that they are often concerned with the welfare of humans and communities in distress and needing social relief (Davids, 2005). They often are formed out of philanthropic or charitable motives and have a leaning towards using volunteers as a labour force. NPOs, as is mentioned in the name, are not intended to make profit that can be distributed to its members.

On the other hand, corporate companies exist to make a profit, are driven and

motivated by the income they are able to generate for their shareholders. Companies are interested in increasing their market share, while some may have socio-economic benefits; it is often an unintended consequence rather than a deliberate action (Davids & Theron, 2014).

While there are distinct character differences between companies and NPOs, NPOs' exist on a continuum and range from informal groupings that render services at a grassroots level to established organisations with a long history, ample resources and well-developed management structures. The NPO continuum is best summed up by the five types presented by Ryan (1999), namely: grassroots organizations characterised by an informal but organised interventions; volunteer organizations which are usually registered but operate similar to grassroots organisations; entrepreneurial organizations which are NPOs that function like social-purpose businesses; inter-organizational alliances which are collaborative and networks of organisations; and corporate firms which create holding companies or NPOs that deliver services through a number of different operating entities, sometimes including for-profit subsidiaries.

The typologies presented in the model by Ryan (1999) allude to the mechanisms and stakeholders involved in the delivery of services, particularly social services, in countries. Furthermore, non-profit organisations are not a homogenous group and differ in terms of size, field of service, tax and legal status, ownership, staff, primary beneficiary types, use of technology, performance and decision-making processes (Kreutzer, 2009). Due to the heterogonous nature of NPOs, it is difficult to construct a one-size-fits-all theory or model of NPOs nor their governance; however, it is worth exploring existing theories and models of governance within the diverse social service NPO spectrum.

The next section expands on the key role players in the provision of social service organisations.

2.5 Developmental role players in the provision of social services

In western countries that are more developed, welfare reform is considerably reduced

and government commitment to welfare is often concerned with norms and standards rather than the direct provision of these services (Swilling et al., 2002; Gray, 2005). In developing countries, the investment in social reform and welfare has characteristically been very low based on the low income and Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of those nations (Gray, 2005). Unlike its counterparts in the west and on the African continent, South Africa, through its welfare policies and reform chose a more interventionist approach with a commitment to providing an inclusive social development approach to service delivery as enshrined in the 1996 Constitution and White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a; Gray, 2005, Patel, 2005).

In its commitment to a transformed social service and profession, the democratically elected government of the African National Congress (ANC), adopted a socialist approach to the delivery of welfare services by ensuring that those in need could access free education, health care, social security benefits, housing and legal assistance at minimal or no cost. However, the economic policies chosen to meet these ambitious welfare reforms were neoliberal, based on internationally imposed structural adjustment plans which aimed to reduce the apartheid deficit and improve the country's international competitiveness (Habib & Taylor, 1999). The result of this neoliberal approach to the market meant that at times, economic policies were in direct conflict with or incompatible with the social development needs of the country.

During the apartheid era, the non-profit sector emerged to offer an alternative non-racial welfare system largely in support of the movements of the poor, while the state focused the bulk of its welfare system on the "poor white problem" (Habib & Taylor, 1999). This dualism of welfare system continues into modern day South Africa, with social service being the primary concern of government yet predominantly delivered through non-profit organisations (NPOs) in what has come to be known as public-private partnerships (Patel et al, 2008; Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014).

Within this dual context, South African social service organisations can be divided into the government and non-governmental or NPOs sector; these are further broken down into formal and informal organisations (Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014).

Non-profit organisations differ from government in that they are private, self-governing and promote people-centred development, while government is elected by the people through a democratic process and operates more rigidly than NPOs (Davids, 2005). The dual system coexists and compliments one another, with both parties recognising the contribution of the other in achieving the developmental mandate of the country. Figure 2.1 below visually illustrates the two types of (government and non-governmental) social service organisations that exist in South Africa as presented by Rankin and Engelbrecht (2014).

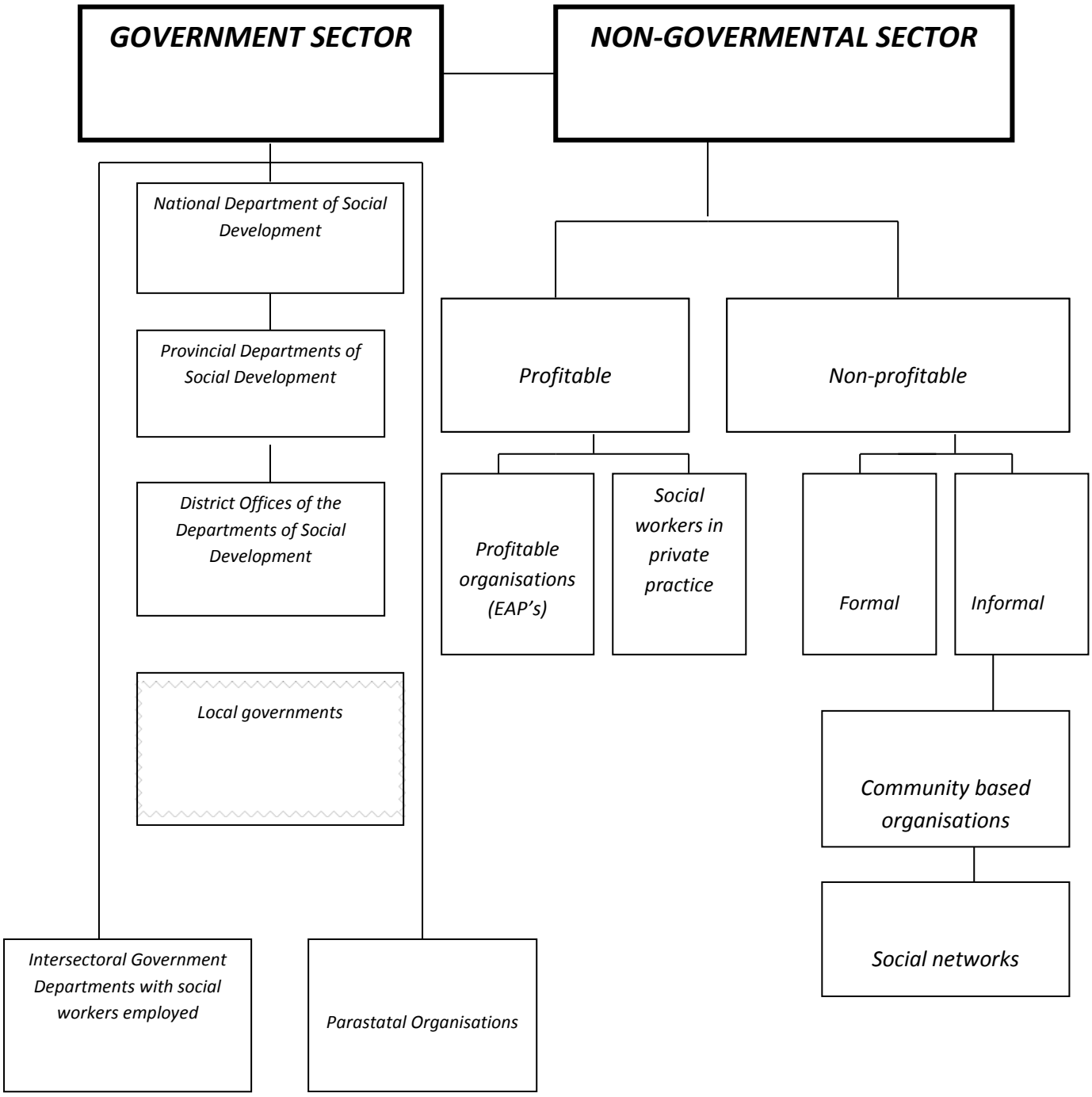

Figure 2.1: South African social service providers

The White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a) makes provision for the existence and role of non-profit organisations to deliver welfare services, seek funding and support from government and this increased interdependence and collaborations sentiment is echoed in the National Development Plan 2030 (National Planning Commission, 2012). Although the provision of social services is primarily the responsibility of the state, South Africa has two welfare systems inherited from its apartheid history (Habib & Taylor, 1999). Government is made up of the national

department of social development responsible for the policy direction and oversight of the sector, and then the 9 provincial departments are tasked with the translation of the macro policies into implementable plans for the district and local government levels (Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014). The nongovernmental sector, while regulated by the Directorate of Non-profit Organisations at the National Department of social development, is broken into profitable organisations that charge fees for services and non-profit organisations, which can operate at the national, provincial, district or local levels (RSA, 1997a, Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014). It is the latter, the non-profit organisations, that is of concern to this research.

In recent years, South African NPOs have become significant role-players partnering with government to render vital services to individuals, groups and communities and play a vital role in supporting government to achieve its development objectives (Habib & Taylor, 1999). Furthermore, in the social services, the Financial Awards Policy of the Department of Social Development (DSD, 2011) calls for the capacity building of NPOs and strengthening of relationships between government and civil society precisely because of the role of NPOs in the provision of developmental welfare services. In light of this role of NPOs, it is thus vital to understand the composition, functioning and efficacy of these crucial partners as well as their contribution to the national social development agenda. The following section details some of the policies and laws that govern South African NPOs and implications for the broader social services.

2.6 Current laws and policies pertaining to the NPO sector

Since the 1960s to date, there has been an unprecedented number of non-profits organisation (NPO) being founded, often in response to socio-economic, political, health or environmental needs (Davids, 2005). Martens (2002) notes that the term non-governmental organisation (NGO) is a post-World War II expression, which was initially coined by the United Nations (UN) in 1954 and has evolved into the non-profit organisation (NPO) commonly used today. Within the NPO sector, there are various labels and over-lapping terms used such as ‘‘nongovernmental,’’ ‘‘voluntary,’’ and ‘‘civil society’’ organizations (Davids, 2005; Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014).

The Department of Social Development (DSD) as the custodian of NPOs in South Africa is tasked with the mandate of registering, ensuring oversight and providing support to registered organisations (Davids, 2005). In addition to the NPO Act, there are a number of legal frameworks that govern and have a direct bearing on all NPOs. The following section provides a summary of the relevant acts, policies and codes of good governance that govern NPOs.

2.6.1 The Non-profit Organisations Act, 1997

The Non-profit Organisations Act (NPO Act) (RSA, 1997b) was enacted to repeal parts of the apartheid-era Fundraising Act of 1978. The Act was meant to provide context and policy guidelines to nourish fertile ground for NPOs to meet the needs of the South African populous (RSA, 1997b). The core of the NPO Act is to provide a policy framework in which organisations can register as legal entities, outline governance structures, recommend financial management processes, make provisions for government oversight as well as provide funding regulations (Swilling, Russell & Habib, 2002; Davids, 2005; Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014).

For NPOs, some statutory requirements include annual reporting to the Directorate of NPOs, maintaining financial records, NPOs are governed by Boards or management committees that are independent and must have a Constitution that outlines operations and governance (RSA, 1997b; Rankin & Engelbrecht, 2014; Inyathelo, 2014). Table 2.1 below tabulates the various non-profit organisation registration types and the main governing laws in South Africa.

Table 2.1 Summary of NPO registration types and applicable laws adapted from the NPO Act

Non-profit organisation type	Law
Voluntary Association	NPO Act of 1997
Trust	NPO Act of 1997 and Trust and Property Control Act 57 of 1988
Not for Profit Companies	Companies Act 71 of 2008

Section 21 company	Companies Act 61 of 1973, Co-operatives Act 91 of 1981
Communal Property Association	Communal Property Associations Act 28 of 1996

In South Africa, the Non-profit Organisation Act of 1997 (RSA, 1997b) offers a legal definition of an NPO as being "a trust, company or association of persons established for a public purpose and the income and property of which are not distributable to its members or office-bearers except as reasonable compensation for services rendered" (RSA, 1997b: 40). This definition thus, clearly defines three types of registration pathways for organisations; namely, NPOs may register as Voluntary Associations, Trusts or Non-profit Companies (NPC) and must comply with the requirements that govern the registration process (RSA, 1997b). South African organisations are considered profit making or non-profit based on their purpose for existence and services rendered; there exists a regulatory legal framework that seeks to provide a fertile environment for non-profit organisations to operate and flourish.

It was thus in this spirit, that in 2001, the DSD developed the Code of Good Practice (DSD, 2009) to ensure accountability, transparency and good governance in the NPO sector. However, recent evidence indicates that a nominal number of NPOs are even aware of the Code of Good Practice and even fewer organisations have utilised it as a governance tool proving a dire need to reinvest in the education and training of volunteers on management committees about organisational management and governance of NPOs (Umhlaba Development Services, 2005; DSD, 2009).

2.6.2 Companies Act, 2008

One of the registration pathways for NPOs is to register as Non-Profit Companies through the Department of Trade and Industry's Companies and Intellectual Property Commission (CIPRO) and regulated by the Companies Act of 2008 (RSA, 2008). Thus, social enterprises and organisations that want to build a trading component can have the dual status of operating as a business with a social motive or impact. In this instance, NPCs can register with or without office bearers (committee members) (Wyngaard, 2013). This form of registration makes it possible for a non-profit

company to register without office bearers and thus has implications for accountability and governance and challenges the existing proposed NPO Act review recommendations for the Act review (Inyathelo, 2014).

2.6.3 Taxation Laws Amendment Act, 2000

Although the NPO Act (RSA, 1997b) is specific in defining NPOs as being for "public purpose", the Act did not provide a clear definition of what this public purpose was, which caused problems with taxation and providing tax exemption legislation to these organisations (Davids, 2005). Thus, a new term was coined, "public benefit organisations", which was defined in the Taxation Laws Amendment Act (RSA, 2000) to encompass the income generating and non-income generating organisations whose sole mandate is to render services for the benefit of the general public.

In the past, civil society organisations were required to register as an NPO under the NPO Act and then register as 'public benefit organisations' with the Tax Exemption Unit at the South African Revenues Services (Wyngaard, 2013; Inyathelo, 2014). This public benefit organisation was done away with under the Taxation Laws Amendment Act (RSA, 2005), which gave way for the regulation of NPO taxation under the small and medium enterprise taxing laws so that NPC can also be covered under this exemption.

2.6.4 Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Amendment Act, 2013

In the social services professions, welfare organisations that render developmental services to individuals, groups, communities are referred to as social services organisations and can partner with corporate to secure funding under the corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives of corporates (Inyathelo, 2014). The current Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Amendment Act (RSA, 2013a) currently affects companies by incentivising them to partner with NPOs that have up to 75% black beneficiaries which accrues points on their BBBEE scorecards. BBBEE scorecards can then be redeemed for taxation breaks and government points when tendering for business with government departments (DSD, 2011).

Therefore, the effect of the BBBEE codes it to provide incentives for NPOs to review their demographic composition to include more black beneficiaries, making them more attractive for business support through the BBBEE scorecard as well as government tenders. These BBBEE requirements also apply to the composition of NPO management committees, beneficiaries and have led to an increased number of community members being represented at various tiers of management of NPOs (DSD, 2011). In many cases, NPOs who are in compliance with BBBEE and may submit a tender to government to implement services on behalf of government, however, in many cases the bureaucracy and capacity requirements have limited their participation in this tender process.

2.6.5 Policy on Financial Awards to Service Providers, 2011

Despite the lack of comprehensive profiling of management theory and literature on NPOs, since the 1990s, there is considerable scholarship on the notion of capacity building as development in NPOs (Lewis, 2007). This shift in focus is indicative in the loci of control of resources and connection between the global south and the west. Lewis (2007) argues that "capacity building" as a term is ill defined and imprecise but commonly understood to employ empowerment strategies, participation between a developed party and one in need of being capacitated. In this regard, a power dissonance is implied with the developed party is in a position of authority imparting knowledge and the emerging organisations receive the empowerment strategies with very little contribution to the process.

It is in this context that the Department of Social Development Policy on Financial Awards to Service Providers (RSA, 2011), highlights the needs for established organisations to build capacity in emerging organisations but is silent on the power dynamics inherent in the relationship. This power imbalance is particularly important in the South African context where development has largely been paternalistic, characterised by a top down approach and racially divided with historically white minorities in the position of power and aiding systematically underserved black majority populations. Thus, the proposition of skills exchange and capacity building may not be reciprocal and thus perpetuating a power imbalance that may be the

unintended consequence of a well-meaning social policy.

2.6.6 Other relevant laws

In addition to the relevant laws pertaining to the registration and taxation of NPOs in South Africa, there are several other policies that have a bearing on the functioning, governance and management of NPOs. The King Report III on South Africa Good Governance (Price Waterhouse Coopers, 2009) and the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) Amendment Act (RSA, 2013a) both stipulate the composition of the governing Board or management committees as needing to be representative of the South African demographics, needs to include the previously disadvantaged groups (mainly black Africans and women) at all tiers and operate independently of the management team and or operational team. While the King Report III is legally binding to corporates, it is not binding to NPOs in South Africa yet.

Furthermore, organisations that employ staff, are then required to comply with the Basic Conditions of Employment Amendment Act (RSA, 2002), which provides rigorous stipulations on the process of employing employees, how employees are to be treated in the work place to prevent exploitation of workers as well as outline the punitive measures to be metered out should an employer contravene the Act (RSA, 2002).

Depending on the sector the NPO operates in, there are various other laws that are sector specific and pertain to the relevant organisations. In the social services, the Children's Amendment Act (RSA, 2007) details how children are to be cared for and protected, the Older Persons Act (RSA, 2006) protects the elderly and outlines care provision for them. Moreover, the South African Social Security Agency Act (RSA, 2004) details the disbursement of social security grants to children, the elderly, and people with disabilities, the terminally ill and those that are deemed medically unfit to seek gainful employment. These are but a few laws that have a bearing on the functioning and management of South African NPOs.

South African laws and policies are aimed at ensuring that the Republic's Constitution is upheld while preventing the atrocities of apartheid. The democratisation of South African society has provided new opportunities for NPOs to make an impact and

contribution to social development, particularly at the grass roots level. Of late, these institutions face uncertainties in law and financial security as various government departments, led by the Department of Social Development, undergo reviews and possible repeals of laws such as the NPO Act (RSA, 1997b), the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Amendment Act (RSA, 2013a), the Companies Act of 2008 (RSA, 2008) and various taxation and financial awards laws.

The review of these policies is intended to increase accountability, govern the sector and therefore improve quality and the monitoring and evaluation mechanisms and curb financial misconduct. However, not all NPOs have the capacity to meet this rigour, which may result in them having to close their doors.

2.7 Changing policy context and implications for the South African NPOs

The current NPO Act creates an accountability vacuum and exempts management committee members from legal liability but rather a moral and character onus; the effect of which is that members often do not take their involvement in organisations very seriously (Inyathelo, 2014). The lack of management committee members' involvement in NPOs has been one of the major critiques of organisations when it comes to governance and accountability (Umhlaba Development Services, 2005). While this speaks to the informal nature of the governance of NPOs, it is also symptomatic of potential threats to the overall growth of the sector due to the informal nature of such an important function within any organisation. With growing donor interest in governance and accountability, many organisations are at an increased risk of losing funders and prospective investors due to the ill-conceived and ill-executed function of organisational management and governance.

In an attempt to address some of the governance and accountability issues faced by NPOs, the Department of Social Development's Minister Bathabile Dlamini, commissioned a review of the NPO sector, which culminated in two consultative summits in 2012 (DSD, 2012a, Wyngaard, 2013). The outcome of the summit was met with great dissatisfaction from NPOs who perceived the consultations to be mere window dressing to advance an already set agenda (Department of Social

Development, 2012a; Wyngaard, 2013; Inyathelo, 2014). This was largely in part to the tabling of an already drafted NPO framework titled*: "Policy framework on non-profit organisations law: Proposed Amendments to the Non-Profit Organisations Act, Act 71 of 1997"* as well as the lack of representation of organisations that were not funded by DSD which was presumed to be prejudicing the outcome because it lacked independence and adequate sector wide representation (Wyngaard, 2013; Inyathelo, 2014).

While the review of the NPO Act in itself was long due to bring it into alignment with existing socio-economic contexts of the country, the proposed changes suggested by DSD had serious implications for organisations, particularly for smaller sized organisations, that were financially fragile as well as the mechanisms for which they could secure future government and international funding. The proposed changes to the Act included the following:

- Compulsory registration of all NPOs engaged in any activity so as to regulate the sector and ensure that organisational governance was aligned to the Code of Good Governance (DSD, 2012b; Wyngaard, 2013; Inyathelo, 2014).
- Register all foreign organisations to mitigate money laundering and all illegal activity (DSD, 2012c; Wyngaard, 2013; Inyathelo, 2014).
- Establishing a more punitive environment for office bearers/management committee members of NPO to encourage more participation and accountability among organisations and those tasked with the fiduciary responsibility (DSD, 2012c; Wyngaard, 2013; Inyathelo, 2014).
- The creation of a tribunal to regulate the registration and governance of non-profit organisations. However, this suggestion has been abandoned, as it would require that DSD increase its capacity by 42%, which it currently cannot afford (DSD, 2012c; Wyngaard, 2013; Inyathelo, 2014).

Government provides a legislative framework and at times financially enabling environments for social organisations to render their services. While autonomous, social services are governed by policies set by government and therefore have both a

legal and ethical obligation to government. This is particularly important as historically, South African NPOs have operated in silos and relied heavily on international donor funding to run operations due to the unethical practices of the apartheid government (Davids & Theron, 2014).

The revisions to the NPO Act and the DSD's position are criticised for wanting to impinge on the autonomy of civil society's independence and ability to self-determine, which underpin NPOs' right to self-regulate, monitor government and hold government accountable should the need arise (Inyathelo, 2014). These current suggestions would seriously compromise NPOs' ability to self-determine and potentially precipitate conditions, which if unchecked, could fertilise ground for an autocratic system of dictatorship, censorship and apartheid-style social engineering that would be in direct contravention of the South African Constitutions and the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a). In fact, countries like Brazil, India and Kenya that have similar development and economic statuses as South Africa, the regulation of civil society has been revised, and these countries have tended to emulate the South African NPO system for registration and regulation albeit with minor differences (Inyathelo, 2014). In principle, the proposed changes would be ideal in an environment that was equal and where government had the capacity to see through the proposed changes and meet the financial and capacity needs of NPOs. However, government, particularly DSD, does not have this capacity and thus the review process has merely served to alienate an already fragmented NPO sector. Recently, where government has provided support, it has been in line with government short to medium term priorities and requiring more rigorous management and fiduciary systems (Patel, 2005; Davids & Theron, 2014).

Furthermore, South African NPOs management structures have been biased towards white middle class people who predominately possess some formal education and post-school qualification. By changing this structure through BBBEE codes and DSD's Financial Awards Policy and legalised quotas, NPOs do not have the time for a hand over period or skills transfer with community members who are suddenly "volunteered" to management echelons of organisations without the necessary training. This is particularly interesting in the South African context where large

pockets of the country's population is underdeveloped, have very basic educational attainment yet are required to be active agents in redress and addressing some of the inequalities of the past (DSD, 2011).

2.7.1 NPO funding and financial sustainability

In reviewing policies and laws, particularly to regulate the sector and provide oversight in order to ensure NPOs are accountable, transparent and adhering to good governance, funding continues to be a large indicator by proxy of these fundamental principles. NPOs have the unenviable task of needing to secure funding in order to deliver services while responding to the changing policy climate, which may or may not, affect how organisations are able to mobilise resources (DSD, 2011). Currently, South African NPOs fund their activities through government funding, enterprise development, corporate social responsibility and local and international donor funding (Swilling et al., 2002; African Grantmakers Network, 2013).

In the social services, the DSD Financial Awards Policy (DSD, 2011), summaries the key government stakeholders who provide funding to NPOs; these stakeholders include the National Development Agency (RSA, 1998b), National Lotteries Distribution Trust (RSA, 2013b) as well as tenders to become service providers for local government departments (DSD, 2011). While the long-term ideal is securing government funding for many NPOs, the onerous and bureaucratic process of attaining this status and ultimately the funding is a huge deterrent and many organisations simply do not have the capacity nor resources to invest in pursuing this avenue of funding. Unlike their for-profit counterparts, NPOs cannot afford to employ highly skilled financial experts which both creates the impression that NPOs do not consider financial management an area of high priority nor maintaining sound financial records and legal entities which may make them more attractive/eligible for more funding (De V Smit, 2014).

The other channels of funding for NPOs are through donors, corporates and a small proportion of NPO income is received from individuals. In fact, the Nedbank Private Wealth Giving Report (Nedbank, 2013) found that most high-net-worth individuals, who give, give to social causes over a long period of time depending on the country's needs at the time. For example, during the HIV/AIDS crisis, most individual donors

were committed to supporting causes that dealt with HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and support (Nedbank, 2013). Thus, indicating the funding is seasonal, based on macro issues and shifts according to the perceived or real needs of society.

2.8 Conclusions

Social development as an approach to social welfare has been institutionalised as a mechanism and approach for providing social welfare through the White Paper for Social Welfare (Midgley, 1995; RSA, 1997b; Patel, 2005). Social development is both a process that is adopted by practitioners and those involved in development and an approach to promoting social welfare. South Africa, despite major advancements in providing social security and safety nets to the country's most vulnerable citizens, developmental social welfare services still reflect inequalities and stark realities inherited from apartheid (O'Brien, 2005). In the South African context, the social welfare provision is through the governmental and nongovernmental sectors, which often work for competing interests in the delivery of social services. Government is policy orientated and has the mandate to serve its most vulnerable citizens. The nongovernmental sector is made up of profit and non-profit organisations. Non-profit organisations play a vital role in the delivery of vital social services but are also characterised by the entrenched inequalities of the sector. The NPO Act provides a legislative framework aimed at supporting organisations to be more accountable, transparent and sustainable. However, the current suggested policy reviews threaten the legitimacy and sustainability of a number of organisations who do not have access to financial and social assets, skills and development opportunities nor the social or financial capital to remain competitive in the face of more stringent legislations such as the proposed changes to the NPO Act, the DSD's Financial Awards Policy, BBBEE Act and other relevant policies informing governance and management.

This unstable policy environment coupled with a challenging and competitive funding environment, if allowed to persist, may dramatically hamper the realization of a state of social cohesion, development and social inclusivity within South African communities. Furthermore, the strengthening of civil society relies on the concerted efforts of citizens, government and the private sector. By over regulating the

environment in which natural collaborations occur, policies such as the amendments suggested for the NPO Act constrict the enabling environment in which integrated development flourishes.

CHAPTER 3 - AN ANALYSIS OF INTERNATIONAL AND LOCAL THEORIES AND THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE ON VOLUNTEERISM WITHIN THE NPO SECTOR

3.1 Introduction

According to the 2013 Department of Social Development (DSD) non-profit audit, South Africa had 100 940 organisations registered on the DSD NPO database indicating a vast increase from the initial 49 826 registered NPOs in 2007/08 (Kelly, Rau & Stern, 2010; DSD 2013). This significant increase in the number of organisations being established indicates the vast need for alternative service providers to government as well as poses a different challenge to the management and governance of NPOs. In the same NPO audit, DSD found that nearly 36 428 NPOs were noncompliant with the requirements of the NPO Act and had thus been deregistered from the database (RSA, 1997a; DSD, 2013). This substantial deregistration of organisations indicates a significant gap in the translation of key legislation into action by NPOs which may be symptomatic of the capacity of these organisations to manage and self-govern in the way that is envisaged in the NPO Act.

Secondly, DSD has proven to have limited capacity in its ability to provide oversight and enforce the implementation of organisational governance in compliance with the NPO Act (RSA, 1997a).

Moreover, the heavy reliance on volunteers in the NPO sector has largely been both a curse and a blessing. While there is an abundance of people willing to contribute time and energy in the supporting organisations, often these people do not possess the skills that organisations require to perform key tasks within the operations and management of the organisation. The participation of individuals in volunteer work and volunteer positions, particularly within social service organisations, is a vital part of social production activities and cannot be underestimated in terms of its real and perceived impact on the social service sector and broad NPO sector (Dwyer, Bono, Snyder, Nov & Berson, 2013).

The term volunteer is often used in ambiguous terms and conflates the very

heterogeneous grouping of people involved in altruism and particularly the social production sector. However, the term volunteer refers to a diverse group of people and organisations involved in different activities on a continuum.

This chapter aims to contextualise the broad volunteer sector; describe the stratified nature in the field of volunteers in the context of some select theories that underpin the management of volunteers. Furthermore, there will be a greater focus on volunteers that serve on the management committees of social service non-profit organisations.

3.2 Defining volunteers within social service non-profit organisations

The global understanding of volunteerism is usually understood as any unpaid activity where individuals give their time freely to help an organisation or an individual who is not a relative (Pryce, Hall & Gooberman-Hill, 2015).

Snyder and Omoto (2008: 3), define volunteering as the "freely chosen and deliberate helping activities that extend over time, are engaged in without expectation of reward or other compensation and often through formal organisations, and that are performed on behalf of causes or individuals who desire assistance"

The study of volunteers, volunteer motivation and personal decision-making processes in individuals who volunteer has been the subject of international social research and particularly social science research interest (Snyder & Omoto, 2008). Volunteer motivation is both a broad field as it is heavily reliant on individual interests and varies from person to person. However, gaining an understanding of why individuals volunteer time and skills is essential to social service organisations for the management and retention of this valuable asset.

Globally, the NPO sector has historically relied on volunteers to offer time and energy in social production activities that have supported NPO programmes (Kelly, Rau & Stern, 2010). This reliance has come out of need rather than choice, as many organisations cannot afford the high cost of staff, particularly in the initial stages of development.

In the early 1990s, Clary and Snyder (1991) adopted a functionalist approach to studying volunteerisms by concerning themselves with the motivational bases of people's interest in volunteering in pursuit of differing goals. The functionalist approach also attempts to describe and explain the extent to which personal underlying motives match the experience of volunteers, which ultimately determines the retention of volunteers (Dwyer et al., 2013). When there is a mismatch between the experiences and their personal motives, high attrition takes place as compared to volunteers who maintained positive affect by forming high quality relationships over a longer period of time (Dwyer et al., 2013). Therefore, the duration of time volunteered and the nature of relationships formed has a direct impact on the retention rate of volunteers within social service NPOs. This is of importance to social workers and social work managers managing diverse groups of volunteers or volunteer programmes as it influences the manner in which interaction should and can take place.

Moreover, volunteers can be grouped into four broad types as posited by De Jager (2014), these are:

- **Long term or traditional volunteers:** who make on-going commitment on a regular basis and thus can be relied on as additional personnel or assigned to key positions in the organisations due to their proven loyalty;
- **Virtual volunteering:** done through electronic means and may be responsible for work that does not require a physical presence or in person contact time but can take the load off staff and other volunteers physically based at the organisation;
- **Short-term or episodic volunteering:** are mobilised for specialised or specific occasions only, and thus have a short time commitment to the organisation and can be rallied in mass at any given time; and
- **Mandated volunteering:** is often through court-mandated volunteering, academic internships or students needing to get some experience as part of field practicums.

These four categories offer a useful matrix in which to understand the diversity that exists among volunteers by neatly boxing volunteers into clusters; these are not mutually exclusive and limit the volunteering to time frames and ignore the other dimensions of volunteers (De Jager, 2014). For example, in the case of a natural disaster, universities may deploy volunteers to support an NPO for a short time and thus serving a dual purpose of education and practising skills while offering real-time support, which would then straddle the category of mandated volunteers and short-term volunteers.

Individuals who volunteer have the vast potential to impact positively on the social networks of communities and organisations delivering vital services to those in need (Pryce, Hall & Gooberman-Hill, 2015). Volunteers represent a free labour force in social service organisations and this labour force can either complement or replace professional support staff (Pryce, Hall & Gooberman-Hill, 2015). The vital contribution of volunteers, especially in organisations that are cash strapped and cannot always afford the cost of professional staff is yet to be adequately quantified. Skilled volunteers can be recruited to perform high-level management functions in organisations at virtually no cost and thus replacing professional staff. In other instances, young college students or low-skilled individuals can be recruited to complement professional staff, however, this group tends to be transient in nature but serve to extend services into the broader community over a short period of time (Snyder & Omoto, 2008; Pryce et al, 2015).

In African communities, people have had existing support systems for collectively helping each other through informal networks during weddings, funerals, and initiation ceremonies or rites of passage (Smith Lunsford, Fatta, Stover & Shrestha, 2015). Furthermore, there are also formal ways such as women's agricultural groups, communal savings or stokvels and church unions, which are community led and mainly voluntary for the purpose of serving the community and those in need (Smith Lunsford, Fatta, Stover & Shrestha, 2015).

Hunter and Ross (2013) note that post-apartheid South African volunteerism has been shaped by national government's goal to meet the human needs, promote democracy

and rectifying the past imbalances of apartheid. Furthermore, international commitments such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) various UN Declarations, and state legislation in the form of the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997b) all stipulate the developmental objectives of the country's poor, alleviating poverty and investing in human capital (Hunter & Ross, 2013). For South Africa, one of the most crippling issues is the rising unemployment and poverty levels, particularly how it affects the youth by denying them the opportunity to actively participate in the economy and wealth creation. Volunteerism presents a unique opportunity to gain skills that can enable them to enter the labour market, link them to opportunities and extend the social production and reach of social service organisations. Thus, it is important to understand the array of volunteers as well as the incentive mechanisms that retain volunteers within social service organisations. The next section offers a brief summation of some of the different types of volunteers.

3.2.1 Stipend-paid volunteers

In developing nations where poverty and hunger play a critical role in survival, the definition of a volunteer as someone who offers their time and skills for free as presented by Pryce, Hall and Gooberman-Hill (2015) is often not possible. Furthermore, in the scramble to serve a growing population, government departments like the Department for Social Development have sought new ways in which to increase services and reach the poor and vulnerable while using a local labour force (Hunter & Ross, 2013). In these instances, volunteers are often incentivised with a reimbursement of costs or through a stipend pegged at an amount lower than the market value for the service being rendered. One of the preferred strategies is to engage volunteers through stipend-paid volunteerism as a creative strategy to increase skill levels among youth and simultaneously provide social services and safety nets within contexts where resource are limited (Hunter & Ross, 2013). Stipend-paid volunteers are by definition those volunteers that receive some financial compensation that is lower than fair market value but engaged in formal work activities helping people whom they are not personally related to (Hunter & Ross, 2013). A South African example is the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) initiated by government, which aims to provide unemployed individuals with

opportunities to learn skills and gain valuable work experience through volunteering in formal stipend-paid positions that are funded by government (Hunter & Ross, 2013). The EPWP programmes is mainly delivered through NPOs who have received the government funding as service providers to roll out such a programmes (Hunter & Ross, 2013).

Mainstream volunteers differ from stipend-paid volunteers who engage in altruistic activities, as they receive no financial remuneration for their time and skills as previously defined. Conversely, many organisations who do not have the organisational capacity to support government requirements for funding EPWP programmes nor their own financial resources to pay stipends may lose out on recruiting volunteers who may pursue paid opportunities; (albeit low paid work) instead of unpaid volunteer positions.

In the social services NPOs, the growing trend of incentivising volunteers means that organisations have a low wage bill but still need to source funds for the growing demand to pay stipends to volunteers. Furthermore, it is harder to the true motives of volunteers entering volunteer programmes when the stipend is a tempting benefit. Likewise, the stipend does in most cases improve the attendance and performance of volunteers who would otherwise not have the means to volunteer because of the costs related such as transport, telephone, meals and other essentials to ensure volunteers are present at work.

In the social services, the diminishing pool of available volunteers may greatly exacerbate the burden of employees and organisations because they longer have a vast pool of willing and unpaid volunteers to perform tasks that are linked to programmes delivery.

Lastly, stipend-paid volunteers are not regulated in terms of conventional labour regimes, thereby, making it harder to benchmark stipends, settle disputes within legal parameters of the existing institutions setup by the Amended Labour Relations Act (RSA, 2000) and provides none of the benefits and protection of employment contracts. This is an unintended consequence that has been under studied in the rush

to get more South Africans active in the labour market and remunerated for their labour.

3.2.2 Corporate social responsibility as volunteerism

The European Commission (2001) defined corporate social responsibility (CSR) or corporate social investment (CSI) as the "concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis" (European Commission, 2001:3). This definition has come to characterise the behaviour of corporates and their charitable giving, caused tax reform in some countries to incentive more companies to contribute to the socio-economic development of countries and increased the social production activities of individuals employed in companies where they would not otherwise have the opportunity and time to get involved in volunteer work (Breitbarth, Walzel, Anagnostopoulos & van Eekeren, 2015).

In recent years, companies have encouraged employees to offer their time and expertise as volunteers in NPOs which can be done during or outside employees' official workload or structured as part of a company social responsibility/investment package offered to NPOs (Samuel, Wolf & Schilling, 2013).

In South Africa, corporate volunteering in lieu of cash donations is increasingly becoming popular and opening up a new reservoir of skilled volunteers who may be recruited to serve on NPO management committees. This kind of volunteerism is enshrined in the Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Act (RSA, 2013a) by ensuring that the Socio-Economic Development scores provide companies with a minimum of a five-point weighting on the B-BBEE scorecard (RSA, 2013a). Essentially, South African companies can improve their BBBEE ratings by increasing their charitable spend to NPOs and encouraging their employees participate in volunteering their time and skills and therefore increasing their social investment spend by directly contributing to the work of social services initiatives.

This NPO-corporate relationship has implications for organisations. Corporate volunteers may not have the same value base as the NPOs, lack adequate

understanding of the human services and rush to prioritise management and rigid management processes that create inflexible structures to the neglect of the process of empowering people which is essential to a developmental paradigm to social service delivery.

Furthermore, it shuts out opportunities for local community volunteers to take part in the social production work because it removes the incentives as corporate volunteers receive a monthly salary from their employment, therefore resulting in limited transference of skills and fragmented relationships between NPOs and communities.

3.2.3 Voluntourism

As national borders get more porous and socio-economic challenges become tackled on a global scale, cross sector partnerships and collaborations are on the rise and increased innovations are taking place in achieving global developmental goals (Sanzo-Perez, lvarez-Gonzalez, Rey-Garcia, 2015). Alliances between businesses, governments and non-profit organisations are being formed in collaborations to address social issues across the globe (Sanzo-Perez, lvarez-Gonzalez, Rey-Garcia, 2015). Similarly, the nature of volunteerism is changing taking on a global shape in operation and reach.

Voluntourism is a new phenomenon that entails individuals volunteering across borders through curated short-term programmes that charge a fee for participation (Sanzo-Perez, lvarez, Rey & Garcia, 2015). More often than not, volunteers from developed nations pay a fee to for-profit and non-profit making organisations that then arrange volunteer opportunities for those individuals in developing countries (Sanzo-Perez, lvarez-Gonzalez, Rey-Garcia, 2015). While the impact of this form of volunteerism is yet to be researched and understood, the immediate benefits is the financial rewards that organisations gain from hosting such volunteers which lessens the burden of recruitment and supporting volunteers by social service organisations.

Furthermore, some non-profit organisations are developing social enterprise models as part of their fundraising strategies in order to align with the voluntourism trend; by recruiting volunteers who can pay for a placement to do short-term volunteer work

and therefore concurrently generating an income for the organisation while achieving organisational objectives (Sanzo-Perez, lvarez-Gonzalez, Rey-Garcia, 2015).

The field of volunteerism is diverse and multifaceted and includes nuances and innovations. Responsive social service NPOs strategically align with new trends in order to gain the maximum benefits from their volunteer programmes. Moreover, the conventional notion of "volunteer" is becoming more complex and harder to define within the parameters of shifting government and corporate spend on programmes that are innovating volunteerism.

Furthermore, these innovations require NPOs and those utilising volunteers to be more responsive and innovative in their management of volunteers. Aptly, social workers, social work managers and those tasked with managing volunteers and volunteer programmes require new skills and innovations in how social services NPOs respond to new trends.

3.2.4 Management of volunteers in social service NPOs

The body of knowledge on employment has primarily focused on the influence of leadership on employees, primarily for the purpose that employers can have a significant impact on the motivation of employees and employees cannot easily withhold labour from employers without legal and financial implications (Dwyer, Bono, Snyder, Nov & Berson, 2013). Conversely, volunteers, primarily for their voluntary service, only have a moral obligation to the leadership of organisations and thus can withhold their time and service at will which has implications for the greater sustainability of organisations (Dwyer, Bono, Snyder, Nov & Berson, 2013). Thus, a greater focus and the development of differing approaches are required both for understanding the individual volunteer motivation and sustaining individual motivation. Managers need to understand that styles of managing volunteers vary significantly from that of managing employees (De Jager, 2014).

In formal organisations, volunteer management and managers, are the paid staff or long-term volunteers who are primarily responsibility for the coordination of volunteers and their activities (Paull & Omari, 2015). In this kind of arrangement, there

is a formal contact person, who assigns tasks, provides direction for volunteers, supports the psychosocial needs of volunteers and thus curates the experience of volunteers in organisations (Paull & Omari, 2015). In informal organisations, the bulk of the working team is volunteers and thus has a less structured support structure (Paull & Omari, 2015).

De Jager (2014) notes that the management of volunteers in social service organisations becomes a core part of social workers and social work managers' work because of the unique contribution of volunteers to social service delivery. Thus, the recruitment, management and retention of volunteers become the foci of organisations. In this regard, volunteers are recruited to meet the needs of the organisation and therefore bolster the capacity of the staff and management team.

De Jager (2014) suggests that social workers/managers should recruit volunteers based on their specific needs and expectations, which may include the following:

- **Policy making:** serving on the Board of directors or management committees;
- **Direct assistance to clients:** relates to direct provision of services to clients, groups or special populations;
- **Administrative office assistance:** supporting the administrative work of the organisation which may include book-keeping, filing, typing, working on brochures or newsletters, answering the telephone and similar responsibilities;
- **Direct assistance to staff:** providing support to the staff by doing research, training, and computer assistance;
- **Community outreach:** through engaging with the community, marketing as speakers/promoters and or through fundraising.

Volunteers, undoubtedly play a critical role in various capacities within social service organisations, with these roles ranging on a continuum from minimal involvement in programmatic work to the high involvement required in governance roles through serving on management committees.

In the local context, South Africa has a wealth of policies and laws governing interactions between employers and employees, however, the majority of those laws are silent on the management and status of volunteers thus rendering them a vulnerable group often lacking protection and benefits found in the formal labour market. Even in instances where government funding policies and programmes such as that of the Expanded Public Works Programmes (EPWP), Department of Health care-workers/home-based care volunteers and Department of Social Development's Financial Award Policy, do not make provision for the regulation and protection of volunteers. Similarly, volunteers serving on management committees of NPOs have a fiduciary responsibility to the organisation (RSA, 1997b) and thus are the top of the accountability hierarchy but this offers little protection, as it remains a voluntary function and therefore susceptible to the same challenges as conventional volunteerism within the lower tiers of the organisation.

3.3 Theories on volunteers and volunteer management

This section explores some of the theories on volunteers and management as pertaining to the volunteers serving on management committees of social service organisations. The four theories, namely: the empowerment theory, human capital theory, social action theory and the ecological systems theory were selected because of their focus on the human development of volunteers, their understanding of individuals within their lived contexts and their focus on empowerment in development. This is particularly important as it underpins the value of the social development paradigm to social service and social welfare. Thus, theories that centre, seek to understand and offer insights into management of social service organisations as performed by volunteers is of particular interest to the study and its aim of understanding the essential management tasks performed by volunteers on the management committees of social service organisations. This section outlines these theories and how they pertain to volunteers on the management committees of social service NPOs.

3.3.1 Empowerment theory

Hardina, Middleton, Montana and Simpson (2007) present a unique managerial

perspective to social work management, which incorporates concepts like citizens' participation, person in the environment and empowerment approaches commonly used in the social services. The empowerment approach is an integrated perspective to management theory that advocates for managers that are competent and adequately skilled to perform their tasks (Hardina et al., 2007). Therefore, managers need adequate skills to enable them to actively participate in decision-making and promote managerial competence from traditional schools of management in ways that are inclusive, participatory, empowering and bridge cultural divides (Hardina et al., 2007). This empowerment approach also relates to the management of volunteers in social service organisations where managers need to be aware of strength-based perspectives in supporting and empowering volunteers.

The empowerment approach as presented by Hardina et al., (2007) is a process that can only be achieved over time and requires a responsive approach to the environment. Additionally, it is a costly activity where skills are mainly acquired over time with an assumed level of educational competence to execute, therefore, management practice implies that managers require particular levels of education and know-how to lead thriving organisations (Anheier, 2000; Kong, 2007). In many emerging NPOs where managers are lowly skilled and form organisations as a direct response to a community need or crisis, the empowerment approach presents an opportunity but would require significant investment and time both of which are often luxuries in resource poor settings (Swilling & Russell, 2001; Everatt et al, 2005; Patel et al, 2012).

While the empowerment approach's main limitations are centred on cost both in terms of time invested in empowering people as well as the key assumptions that there exists a capacity gap needing to be filled. The key tenets of the empowerment approach which are strengthen based, focus on the empowerment of people in positions, building of capacity, embedding a sense of ownership, partnership, facilitation and ensuring equal participation are desirable in the development of volunteers in management committees and speak directly to the capacity building vision as enshrined in the Department of Social Development's Financial Awards'

Policy (Hardina et al., 2007; DSD, 2011).

3.3.2 Human capital theory

Human capital theory was first defined by Schultz (1961) primarily to refer to workers who embody sets of skills (productive capital), which can be rented or procured by employers in order to achieve organisational goals. Furthermore, Bontis, Dragonetti, Jacobson and Roos (1999) define human capital as:

> *"Human capital represents the human factor in the organisation; the combined intelligence, skills and expertise that gives the organisation its distinctive character. The human elements of the organisation are those that are capable of learning, changing, innovating and providing the creative thrust which if properly motivated can ensure the long-term survival of the organisation" (9).*

Human capital is an intangible concept but an important element and asset within organisations (Bontis et al., 1999). It is the differentiating factor that offers organisations a competitive edge in the market by ensuring that key personnel are properly motivated, fosters innovation and learning while maximising the available skills individuals and teams possess (Baron & Armstrong, 2007). It is important to note that organisations do not own human capital but rather procure it through the voluntary work or employment relationships that are entered into with employees and volunteers. It is this voluntary establishment and maintenance of a relationship, which is a critical differentiator of businesses from the social services. Businesses readily can procure these skills through the employment and competitive remuneration of staff and can therefore demand higher performance and expertise from their employees, whereas the social services are often reliant on volunteers and consequently cannot always compete on the same skill and competency scale because they often do not have the means necessary for the procurement of skills. This is not to say that all volunteers and staff in social services are under skilled, however, due to constraints in budget and or availability of free or low paid work in the form of volunteers; many do not have the adequate skills for the roles they perform.

Thus, a human capital approach to organisational management and design is that

people are recognised for their contribution, the organisations are more likely to invest in the development of its personnel because it yields direct results for the growth and productivity of the organisation (Baron & Armstrong, 2007).

Human capital theory is vitally important in social service NPOs where there is a high reliance on free labour in the form of volunteers and paid staff who are at the forefront of delivering services to individuals, families and communities. Thus, an approach that recognises that human beings are assets to an organisation tends to invest in the relationships and individuals in order to achieve the results it needs. Furthermore, the recognition of a mutual exchange between employees and employers, volunteers and organisations implies that all parties exercise freedom of choice in association and are therefore more inclined to perform within their scope of work in their roles; work is easily understood as a two-way exchange of value instead of a one-way exploitation of an asset by its owners, which ultimately leads to productivity and improved morale in employees (Davenport, 1999).

3.3.3 Social action theory

Parsons (1985) described a voluntaristic theory of action that served to extend the model of rationality used by systems theorists. Theory of action presupposes that individuals are purposeful beings motivated and guided by their interests, rewards and constraints in their social environment (Coleman, 1986). Parsons (1951) describes voluntaristic theory of action as being related to two things, namely:

- Firstly, the interchange between personality, cultural systems are important for the sustained social settings, and
- Secondly, internalised social values through socialisation determine behaviour patterns individuals.

Positivistic and rational action theories could not simultaneously explain the social order and rational action of people in certain instances precisely because of their compatibility with natural science to the exclusion of culture and values and the meanings given; therefore, Parsons proposed a theory that aimed to give meaning to

the “irrational” symbolism and beliefs of people within their unique contexts or a sociology of values (Parsons, 1951).

While modern society differs from the one Parsons’ described, volunteers and their participation in social service organisations is informed by a belief that their involvement in social production can ultimately lead to personal development, a better society and living conditions for the vulnerable. Thus, a keen understanding of the purpose driven individuals, their social and cultural values that inform their altruism is necessary so that social workers can manage volunteers from a position of understanding and draw on individual strengths.

3.3.4 Ecological systems theory

The systems ideas in social work originate in the general systems theory as first presented by von Bertalanffy in 1971, who suggested that all organisms are systems composed of subsystems, and in turn are also part of super-systems (Payne, 1997). Therefore, human beings are part of societies, which in turn are made up of smaller parts. In social work, Pincus and Minaham (1973) propose that people depend on systems in their immediate social environment in order to live satisfactory and meaningful lives. These systems can be categorised into three broad kinds of systems:

- Informal or natural systems, which are usually made up of family, friends and colleagues;
- Formal systems such as community groups, trade unions; and
- Societal systems such as hospitals, schools, universities.

People may be able to source comfort through these helping systems and thus social work plays a vital role in creating awareness of social systems and linking people to one or more of these systems. This is particularly true of social workers or managers working in social service organisations as the growing need for interconnectedness and referrals become vital in the provision of services, as no one agency can provide the multitude of services needed in order for people to have meaningful lives.

Germain and Gitterman (1995) offer the ecological systems theory as a meaningful

perspective for understanding volunteers within the social service professions. The life model to the ecological systems theory sees people as influenced by and influencing their environment and therefore both change according to the influences (Germain & Gitterman, 1995).

Bronfenbrenner (1977) further defines the ecology of human development as the scientific study of the progressive and mutual accommodation throughout the lifespan by understanding the interaction of human organs and their changing environment and the way this intersection plays out in their relationships and larger social groups.

Moreover, Bronfenbrenner (1977) argues for a human development approach that supersedes the observational behaviour and provides an understanding of people in place but do not reference the entire ecological system which impacts on the interaction of people, their environment and the situations which form observations in the observer research context. Thus, he advocates for an ecological transition in shaping the course and content of human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1977).

Utilising the ecological perspective is a meaningful lens in which to perceive and understand the myriad of needs of volunteers serving on management committees by appreciating the larger system in which they belong. This vital understanding allows managers the high-level oversight necessary for understanding how individual committee members contribute to the larger system but are also inherently linked to other systems outside of the social service organisation.

3.4 Management committees and NPO governance

There is no precise science in the composition of an NPO Board or management committees; however, social scientists and theorists have attempted to explain and theorize the evolution of management committees of NPOs in an effort to understand NPO governance. Kreutzer (2009) defines NPO governance as “a set of processes, customs, policies and laws affecting the way in which a non-profit organization is directed, administered or controlled” (117). Furthermore, governance includes the strategic relationships among stakeholders, entails the functions of setting direction for the organisation, policy formulation and decision making, oversight and

organizational performance monitoring and evaluation to ensure accountability (Renz, 2004).

3.4.1 Evolution of NPO management committees

Internationally, there is growing interest in the field of non-profit governance but recent scholars have criticised the field for having massive gaps in the literature on governance, primarily in addressing the gaps between the prescriptive literature in management theory on the roles of management committees and their responsibilities versus gaining an understanding of the work that NPOs do and thus developing a governance system tailored to that reality, especially the smaller and more informal NPOs (Stephenson, Schnitzer & Arroyave, 2009). Moreover, the voluntary nature of NPO management committees means that it attracts a particular kind of person, skillset and attitude to the process of management and governance (Stephenson, Schnitzer & Arroyave, 2009). Chait, Ryan and Taylor (2004) argue that the NPO management committees' role is primarily fiduciary and its main purpose is the effective stewardship of tangible assets and its people. This stewardship entails the "efficient and appropriate use of resources, ensuring legal compliance and fiscal accountability, ensuring programmes accountability, overseeing operations, and, finally, selecting and evaluating the chief executive officer" (Chait et al, 2004: 36).

International research into the evolution and lifespan of NPO management committees indicates committees evolve over several developmental stages over a period of time. Mathiasen (1990) suggests that NPO management committees go through three cyclic life stages, namely:

- **Stage 1: Organising Management Committees of Volunteers** where the committee takes on the role of "cheer-leader" and is non-task oriented but serves to support a very strong leader. The other type of committee members tend to be highly engaged, assume more task-oriented focuses and are responsible for governance and every day operations, particularly in small or start-up organisations with relatively informal structures.

- **Stage 2: Volunteer Governing Management Committee:** volunteers are concerned with governance functions such as planning, fundraising, accountability and each member's role is defined and bestowed with authority with distinct shifts made from the operational role adopted in Stage 1.
- **Stage 3: Institutional (Fundraising) Management Committee:** is significantly larger than any of the ones in Stages 1 and 2, is diverse, specialised and is primarily concerned with the sustainability of the organisations. Therefore, a substantial part of the management committee's time is spent on the fiduciary role while the governance is the function of the director or CEO.

Wood (1992) concurs with the stages presented by Mathaisen and expands them into four different phases, namely:

- **Phase 1: Founding Period:** coincides with the establishment of the organisation and is very grassroots and concerned with establishing systems and recruiting the manager.
- **Phase 2: Super-managing Phase:** this phase is characterised by diversifying the management committee composition and skills and segregating the operations from the governance.
- **Phase 3: Corporate Phase:** is a more formalised management committee emulating some of the Fortune 500 (e.g. Nike, Dell, Coca Cola, Barclays Bank, Ford Motors) companies where the serious concern is oversight and guaranteeing staff execute their managerial roles. There is less involvement from members of the management committee.
- **Phase 4: Ratifying Phase:** lastly, expands the former phase where the management committee is detached from the operations and leadership of the organisation. The management committee primarily rubber stamps decisions presented by the CEO and management team.

Dart, Bradshaw, Murray and Wolpin (1996) suggest a life cycle approach is a useful

analysis for documenting the process and evolution of NPO management committees, and further note that development and stages vary dependent of the age of the organisation. The more mature the organisations are, the more focus on procedural and policy formulation and enforcement in governance. This phase is characterised by membership mainly composed of highly skilled members whereas new and least developed organisations tend to blur the lines between operations and governance roles with highly motivated but sometimes lowly skilled volunteers (Dart et al., 1996). While the evolution of NPO membership changes and the capacity and skills often grow with time, these do not always translate into efficiency and effectiveness of management committees in supporting the growth and accountability of organisations.

The majority of governance research is premised on the notion that well-functioning management Boards translate into well-functioning organisations with little attention paid to the definition and measurement of what management Board effectiveness really is (Brown, 2005).

Furthermore, there is often contention between leadership and governance when clear roles and responsibilities are not defined in organisations; this is particularly the case in smaller NPOs (Stephenson et al., 2009). Thus, an understanding between organisational leadership and governance is important in order to shed light on the role and efficacy of management committees of NPOs. The next section presents some of the theories of NPOs governance from developed nations with the aim of contextualising the South African NPOs in their effort to professionalise.

3.4.2 Theories on governance

Leading theorists such as Hung (1998) and Cornforth (2003) have proposed a variety of theories attempting to explain the role of NPO management committees based on models initially developed for and applied to the for-profit sector (Kreutzer, 2009). In most democratic societies, government involvement and funding can play a role in shaping the governance and management of NPOs either through financial policies or financial incentives that either enable organisations to flourish or constrain them and drive organisations towards government's interest (Guo, 2007). In instances where

there is active government involvement, NPOs and their management committees tend to assume a governance role which bridges stakeholder relations (Guo, 2007). In the context of South Africa, various government departments rely on NPOs to be service providers for the delivery of services to the poor and marginalised thereby bolstering the capacity of government to deliver services to communities. The effect of this relationship is that government is able to outsource its services to NPOs through funding mechanisms that allow organisations to deliver on government's mandate (DSD, 2011). While this relationship serves to decentralise the delivery of services and form partnerships between government and civil society, it may often lead to a dependency on government funding, redirect the mandate of the NPOs in order to align to government priorities and undermine the role of management committees who then assume custodial roles rather than perform executive functions of management (Guo, 2007).

Furthermore, management committees often occupy dual roles in NPOs, namely, that of governing the organisation and that of managing organisations which often blurs the lines of authority and accountability. In their governance role, management committees serve at the highest level of the organisational structure and serve to make decisions that impact the strategic direction of the organisation, ratify policies, hold management teams accountable to key decisions and maintain the organisational hierarchy (Guo, 2007). However, in the management role, these volunteers are tasked with operational functions, which include the management functions (planning, organising, leading and control) as originally identified by Fayol (1949) (see chapter 4), which provide a management framework for management committees and managers to execute management tasks.

While the duality of the roles can often blur the lines of accountability and role definition within the organisation, there have been numerous attempts to define and postulate theoretical perspectives attempting to shed light on this phenomenon. Cornforth (2003) offers a synthesis of six main theoretical perspectives that are distinguishable, each with the various tasks performed by the management committee of NPOs. These theoretical perspectives are as follows:

1. ***Agency theory*** places ownership of the enterprise and its management as having differing interests which results in conflict. Therefore, according to agency theory, the role of the management committee is to enforce managerial compliance and ensure that the primary function of the Board is to meter out the consequences in the event of non-compliance (Fama & Jensen, 1983).
2. ***Stewardship theory's*** departure point is the assumption that the managers want to do a good job and are therefore inherently motivated by how well jobs are performed. According to Stewardship theory, the primary role of the management committee is then to support managers improve organisational performance in partnership with the management (Donaldson, 1990).
3. ***Resource dependence theory*** presupposes that organisations depend on other organisations, actors and resources for their ultimate survival. Therefore, the management committee's role is to expand boundaries and manage external stakeholder relationships and partnerships based on inflow and outflow of resources into and out of the organisation (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978).
4. ***The democratic perspective on governance*** bestows the management committees of organisations with the responsibility to represent the best interest of the organisation and its beneficiaries and management is aligned to the achievement of the larger goals of the organisation (Cornforth, 2003).
5. ***Stakeholder theory*** suggests that the organisation has an ethical and real responsibility and accountability to its beneficiaries and the larger society rather than solely to its "owners" or management committee in the case of NPOs (Freeman, 1984). In this instance, the role of the management committees is that of mediator and peacekeeper in managing the potential conflicts that may arise from the diverse interests of the many stakeholders (Cornforth, 2003).
6. ***Managerial hegemony theory*** says that the management board role and power is limited, largely symbolic and mainly "rubber-stamping" decisions

> already taken. The control is ceded to the managing director and staff for all minor and major decisions (Mace, 1971). This custodial role is attributed to the largely voluntary nature of Board members' involvement and the subsequent constraints on their time and thus often results in the symbolic role of management committees (Cornforth, 2003).

While no one theoretical perspective fits all sizes, and the aforementioned perspectives are not mutually exclusive, they presuppose a clear delineation between the management of the organisation and its governance by management committees. In practise, this is often not the case, and as management committees may also be involved in the operational functions of the organisation and therefore confounding the demarcation of roles. Drucker (1990) further notes that there is no neatly segregated divide between governance and the director and staff or in policy-making and policy execution but rather a collaborative and cooperative process. This is particularly pertinent in the South African context where the majority of NPOs are volunteer-driven and one person may occupy several roles as a programmes person, part of management as well as serve on the management committee of the same organisation.

Secondly, many of the theoretical models presented in the field of NPO management are derived from the corporate sector, which is inherently different from the NPO sector, particularly because of the predominantly informal nature of the NPO sector.

Lastly, there is no one size fits all approach to defining the types of management committees nor their composition; Guo (2007) uses the representation of key stakeholders to suggest a framework upon which one can discern four main patterns of governance in the management committees of NPOs.

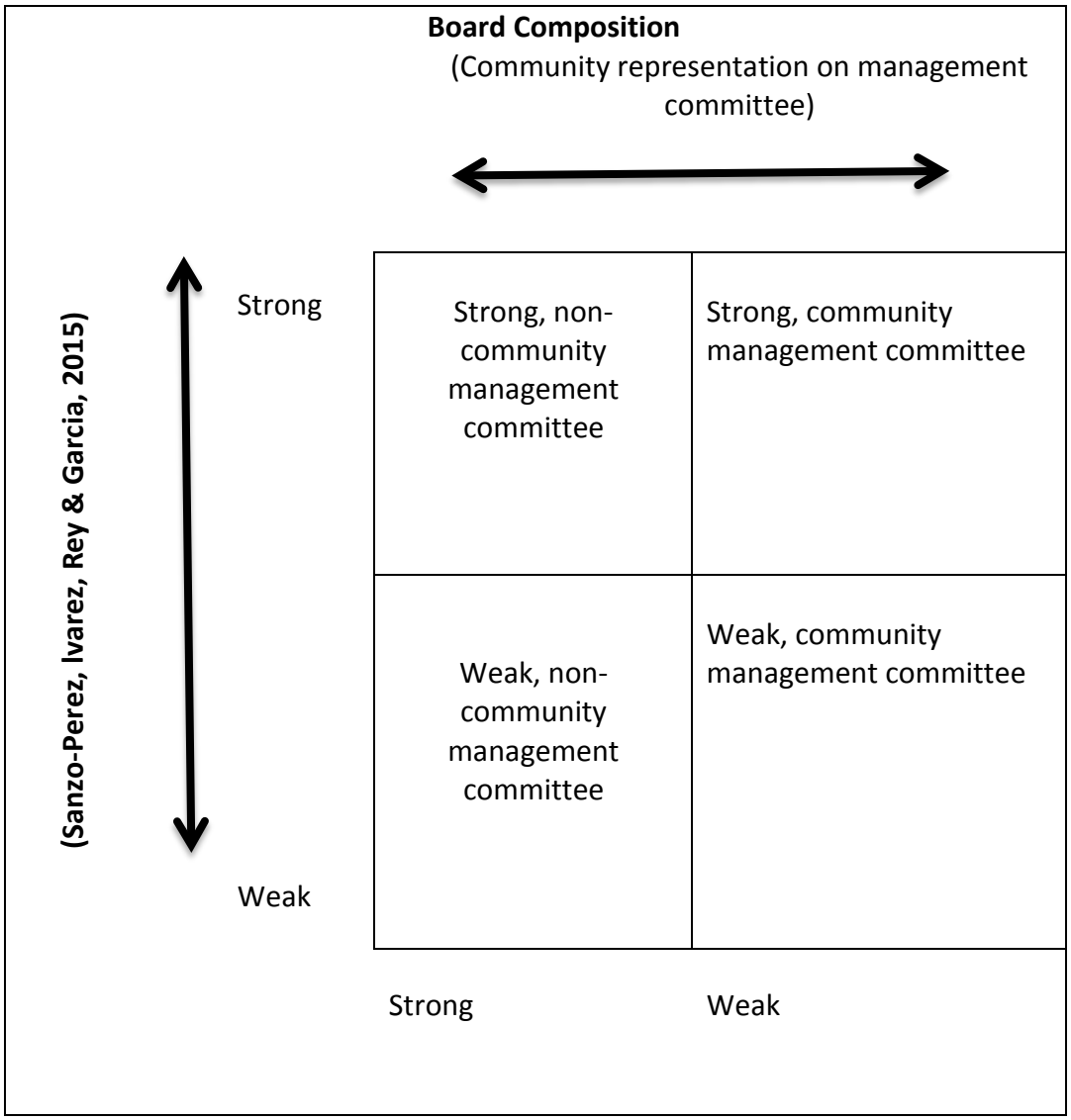

Figure 3.1: Typology of governance patterns of NPOs

Figure 3.1 above as adapted from (Guo, 2007:460) illustrates the four main governance typologies for composition of management committees as described here:

- **Strong, community management committees** indicate high community representation and management committee's power, providing connections

between the committee and community. Guo (2007) notes that management committees in this quadrant tend to demonstrate the controlling power of the community in decision-making and leadership of the organisation.

- **Weak, community management committees** tend to have high community representation but lack the involvement of the management committees' whose power is then weak over the CEO. The high community involvement potentially diminishes the power of the management committees and therefore may negatively impact the governance of the organisation (Guo, 2007).
- **Strong, non-community management committees** represent organisations with high management power with diminished community involvement, which may lead to more decisive and greater management control over organizational direction but lacks inclusion and community participation (Guo, 2007). The risk of model is that it fosters organisations that do not represent the community interest and often do not have buy-in.
- **Weak, non-community management committees** have both low community representation and low management committee power, particularly over the CEO (Guo, 2007). This type of governance structure tends to cast doubts about the governance of an organisation and its capacity to deliver accountable and transparent services.

While management committees of NPOs exist, and move between the aforementioned governance quadrants, the framework presented by Guo (2007), offers a useful lens upon which to view the composition, power and community participation among management committees. The delicate balance between power of management committees and community representation and decision making is a key development area for South African organisations for the actualisation of the social development paradigm to social delivery as outlined in the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a). Given the drive for community participation in policy formulation, implementation and evaluation as outlined in the NPO Act (RSA, 1997b), the BBBEE Act (RSA, 2013a) and the DSD's Financial Awards Policy (DSD, 2011) in realising a truly transformed, rights-based and inclusive society with equal

participation.

Given South Africa's history of injustice, oppression and systemic exclusion based on racial segregation, any governance structure that does not favour community representation is highly problematic, does not advance the social development approach to social service delivery and further entrenches the legacy of apartheid, a condition that cannot be allowed to consume society again. Models that propagate inclusive development and empowerment are favourable to the context of South Africa.

3.4.3 Volunteers and management committees of NPOs

There is undisputed evidence that volunteerism and other forms of citizen participation play an essential role addressing some of the socio-economic issues faced by communities and the world (Dwyer, Bono, Snyder, Nov & Berson, 2013). A critical understanding and review of this expanse source of labour, time and skills is necessary, particularly within the context of management committees of social service NPOs in South Africa.

Due to financial constraints world over, many NPOs strongly depend on volunteer contributions and cooperation to deliver on their mission and vision (Samuel, Wolf & Schilling, 2013). These volunteers have largely come from the communities, colleges or other organised institutions, recently corporate volunteering has afforded NPOs with opportunities to spread their work and vision to a wider public by offering highly skilled individuals in return for tax leverages, public relations and marketing credits that boost corporate profiles (Samuel, Wolf & Schilling, 2013). Historically, NPOs have relied heavily on the pro-bono services rendered by individuals; particularly serving on the management committees and while this continues to be the trend, the nature, scope and characteristics of volunteers are evolving.

Research on the scope and contribution of volunteers in South African has largely been documented in public health through the contribution of volunteers in addressing the HIV/AIDS pandemic, with very little evidence for the broader body of knowledge in the social services or NPOs (Kelly, Rau, & Stern, 2010; Mashale, Kelly, Motuba, &

Myers, 2012). The existing available data derives from national employment data and therefore is only able to quantify the time and contribution of the active labour force to the great neglect of the vast community engagement of unemployed people in communities.

3.4.3.1 South African volunteer base

The Volunteer Activity Survey of 2010 found that 1,2 million persons aged 15 years and older participated in volunteer activities in South Africa (StatsSA, 2011). From the total population of 1.2 million, 64,2% were women and 35,7% were males indicating that there is still a gendered dimension to South Africa volunteering, with 439 000 individuals volunteering through organisations (Patel, 2009; StatsSA, 2011).

There is a common understanding in the social development field that women contribute the most and bear the burden of care in the provision of social services (Patel et al, 2008). Furthermore, the 2010 South African Volunteer Activity Survey (StatsSA, 2011) noted that women contributed more than 256 million hours equalling an average of 6,4 hours per week to volunteer activities amounting to about R4, 4 billion. On the other hand, South African men contributed 123 million hours with an average of 5,6 hours per week of volunteer activities which could have amounted to R3, 1 million (StatsSA, 2011). On average, about 550 000 individuals volunteered through organisations, these volunteers offered 211 million hours of their time with an estimated financial value of R4, 6 billion (StatsSA, 2011). Interestingly, of the 550 000 volunteering within organisations, 520 000 volunteers were engaged in volunteer activities in community and social service organisations (StatsSA, 2011); indicating a vast demand for the free labour offered by volunteers in social service organisations but also the rand value that volunteers provide to social service organisations.

The majority of South African volunteers are white, mostly engaged in gainful employment and have a preference for volunteering through social service organisations for a variety of reasons, which include the safety of the organisational structure and slotting into existing programmes instead of initiating their own (StatsSA, 2011). This preference of volunteers to volunteer through social service

organisations, has a significant bearing on the quality of volunteers that NPOs can recruit and therefore utilise to perform the management tasks and governance required to run a self-sufficient organisation as outlined in the NPO Act (RSA, 1997b).

In its attempt to reform and regulate the non-profit sector, the National Department of Social Development followed Kenya's new 2010 Constitution that bars NPOs from political activity and has a statutory body, similar to the South African Non-profit Organisations Tribunal (SANPOTRI) suggested by DSD (Inyathelo, 2014). This regulatory body would have the power to deregister and enforce punitive measures on NPOs and their members. This is of vital importance because it opens up the individuals, who volunteer to serve on management committees of NPOs, to criminal liability for the organisations that would otherwise not be the case. This criminal liability may serve as a huge deterrent for many willing volunteers but may also motivate the management committee members to adopt a more active role in the execution of the organisation's mandate, governance and accountability.

Secondly, the DSD's proposed changes towards a more stringent and compulsory code of conduct for NPOs seems to contradict the DSD's own 2009 evidence evaluating the good governance practices within the South African NPO sector which found that the majority of South Africans NPOs are not aware of the Code of Good Practice; those who are aware of the Code do not adhere or implement it but rather use their founding Constitution as a governance tool (DSD, 2009).

Lastly, of the 83 000 volunteers sitting as members of management committees of social service organisations (StatsSA, 2011); the majority are employed and split their time between their formal employment and volunteer work. These dual roles often are in conflict as individuals may not be able to commit the desired time to the governance of an NPO with the NPO always being short-changed for the economic activity.

3.5 Conclusion

The body of knowledge on volunteers primarily biases towards the west and rarely captures the true contribution of volunteers to the social production process.

Furthermore, the understanding on the management of volunteers in social service organisations has primarily focused on the frontline volunteers with a dearth of knowledge on volunteers performing roles on the management committees of NPOs. Where literature exists on the volunteers on management committees, it is sparse and does not adequately address the South African context with its nuance.

Due to the vastness and largely unregulated nature of South African social service organisations' volunteer programmes, albeit at times with stipends through donor funding or government programmes, these positions do not always guarantee employment safety nets and protection. In some instances, volunteer positions, particularly at programmes level may result in upward career mobility through employment and other developmental initiatives, which makes volunteering attractive to prospective job seekers. The management of volunteers in social service organisations tends to be in the remit of social workers and social work managers who require some managerial competence and understanding of the volunteer landscape and motivation for volunteering. Thus, volunteers serving on the management committees of NPOs are a unique group because of their responsibility to the organisation and legal obligation, which differs significantly from those of volunteers working in programmes.

Likewise, the six main theoretical perspectives on NPO governance as presented by Cornforth (2003) suggest an evolving sector where the dynamic between volunteers and organisation's CEO is a site for contestation of power, accountability and responsible governance by describing the role of management committees in the process of governance. This is particularly insightful in situations where governance of NPOs is under researched, misunderstood and often spoken about in binary terms where its either functional and based on corporate governance models or inadequate and dysfunctional because it lacks widespread scholarship on the subject.

In response to the governance binary, organisations like DSD have attempted to redirect the operations of NPOs by reviewing the existing legislative framework and institutionalising new regulatory bodies such as the South African Non-profit Organisations Tribunal (SANPOTRI) (Inyathelo, 2014). This bold move has made South

African civil society be more responsive to the NPO Act (RSA, 1997b) by galvanising support in protest of the recommended changes to the Act.

While the available data indicates that there is a bias towards white people volunteering, government led social policy reform via the BBBEE scorecards and Codes of Good Governance directly incentivises organisations to recruit and employ more volunteers and staff across the board. The implication for NPOs, their management committees and the volunteers who serve on these committees, is that they will have to transform to be more representative of the broader South African population. One of the most significant changes is the promotion of more demographically representative management committee's members drawn from the community where NPOs are located so that the community interests are represented in the decision-making of the organisation. This is a shift that is in line with the social development paradigm as enshrined in the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997), which promotes rights, inclusion and participation of communities in development initiatives.

CHAPTER 4 - ESSENTIAL MANAGEMENT TASKS

4.1 Introduction

One of the most banal principles in the non-profit sector is the survival of organisations regardless of the innovation of programmes and its ability to deliver on its mission (Letts, Ryan & Grossman, 1999). Building organisational capacity and strengthening management systems in order to respond to changing public policy, donor or funding systems and evolving service and stakeholder expectations is a non-negotiable in the non-profit sector but is an area often neglected (Letts et. al, 1999).

In part, organisational capacity is linked to the role of management and its ability to be agile in forever changing environments, thus, performing management tasks becomes an integral part of organisational development and functioning (Hughes & Wearing, 2007; Scott, 2015). Social work as a profession tends to carry out its work within the confines of organisations, regardless of whether it is a clinical setting such as a hospital, a community based setting through voluntary organisations or through government agencies (Hughes & Wearing, 2007). Therefore, an understanding of organisational, culture, behaviours as well as management skills and tasks are necessary in order to function optimally in these environments.

Moreover, management practice is informed by particular schools of thought originating from studies in organisational theory and practice (Engelbrecht & Terblanche, 2014). This chapter is a broad overview of key concepts and definitions in organisational theory with particular focus on schools of thought in management of social service by non-profit organisations (NPOs) and the essential management tasks performed in operating social service organisations.

4.2 Management

The term management is used interchangeably to refer to a group of people who are managers in an organisation or the various levels of management in an organisation (Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw & Ooshuizen, 2008). Hellriegel et al. (2008) further note that in bigger companies or organisations, management has several levels, which may include the first-line management, middle

managers and top managers, but are all concerned with delivering on the goals, tasks and responsibilities with varying skills and authority to differing degrees for the organisation.

Management also refers to the tasks and activities performed by managers involved in managing an organisation by planning, organising, leading and controlling (Hellriegel et al., 2008). Therefore, managers are the people responsible (officially) for ensuring organisations achieve their goals through the performance of the primary management tasks (Hellriegel et al., 2008).

Within the social services, Lewis, Packard & Lewis (2012:8) further define management as a "set of systems and processes designed to help employees accomplish organisational and individual goals". Even though some employees may perform some of the managerial functions, they may not necessarily be managers.

Historically, the management debate has focussed on the public management and the private sector binary leaving the non-profit sector out completely, yet, the non-profit sector is proving to be a "third sector" growing in leaps and bounds and therefore complicating the conversation on management (Lewis, 2007).

According to Branine (2011), management practice and organisations in the African context is primarily an administrative process that is politically induced, significantly influenced by culture and highly mirrors the colonial power structures of centralised decision-making and bureaucracy. Furthermore, the politically induced administration process is noted to be centralised, bureaucratic, politicised and tribal compared to the sophisticated systems in North America and Europe (Branine, 2011).

Lewis (2007) argues that there is no real cohesive definition of "development" in the non-profit sector and therefore no consensus on how it should be "managed" further problematizing the management debate.

Management in social service organisations differs from one organisation to the other. However, the primary characteristics and tasks to be performed in all these organisations are similar. These tasks include, but are not limited to, the financial

management, recruitment and selection of personnel, the motivation and coordination of the various activities of individuals, balancing internal and external risk of the organisation, communication, information management and monitoring evaluating organisational progress (Austin, 2002). Moreover, the managerial context in the social work profession means that all social workers are managers if one adopts the notion that management is the organisation of resources to get work done (Coulshed, Mullender, Jones & Thompson, 2006). Therefore, the performance of management is through the tasks performed, and social workers can be deemed managers precisely because of their role as resource mobilisers for getting work done.

4.2.1 Levels of management

Depending on the size and complexity in the structure of the organisation, an organisation can have multiple levels of management all performing key management functions. In this instance, three management levels will be presented, namely:

- **Top management:** this level of management tends to represent a small group of managers who have controlling power of the organisation and who have the final authority and decision-making of the organisation as a whole (Smit & Cronje, 1999). Top management concerns itself with the long-term planning, designing the organisation's broad structure, leading the organisation and ensuring control (Smit & Cronje, 1999). In the non-profit sector, this tier of management is also known as the management committee, Board of directors or management Board.
- **Middle management:** is usually designated for the oversight of departments, implementing policies, plans and strategies formulated at the top management level. Thus, their role is primarily for short-term to medium term planning, organising, leading and controlling (Smit & Cronje, 1999). In the non-profit sector, particularly in social service organisations, social worker managers and supervisors occupy this tier of management (Reyneke, 2014).
- **Lower management:** first line managers are primarily concerned with smaller day-to-day segments of the organisation and are centred on the

daily activities of their segment/department or team. In the social service non-profit organisations, these roles are usually occupied by social workers and auxiliary workers that have oversight over their programmes, activities and general administration linked to their casework management (Reyneke, 2014).

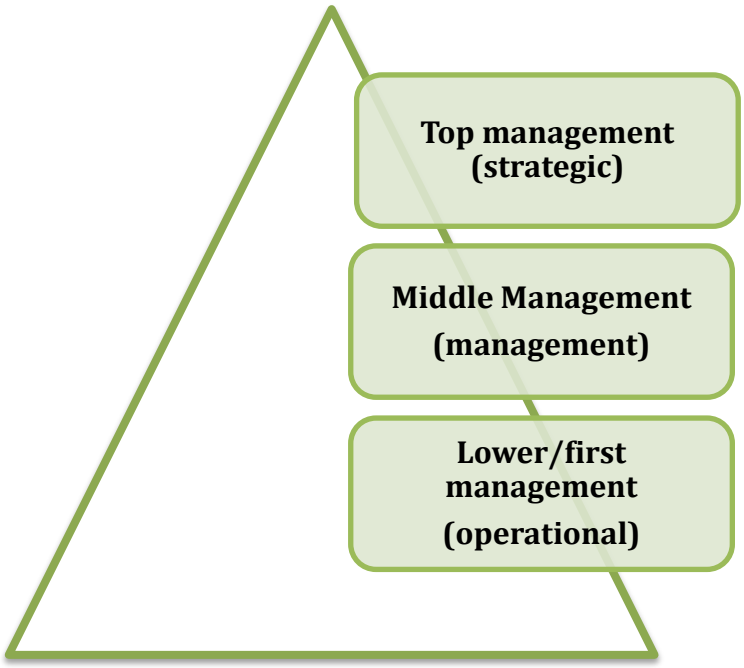

Figure 4.1: Three levels of management

Figure 4.1 as adapted from Smit and Cronje (1999:13; Anheier, 2005) above represents the hierarchical structure of management and is presented in a linear manner to illustrate the designation of power, decision-making and authority but also the classification into levels within the organisation and the area of their functional management (Smit & Cronje, 1999). In this structure, management is a rigid and hierarchical structure, which implies a bureaucratic decision-making process.

By contrast, Hafford-Letchfield (2007) suggests that at the lowest level of management are the end users and the community who feed the supervisory management mainly functioning to provide employees and social workers with direction. Middle management is comprised of specialised tasks and often includes senior supervisors and social work managers and directs the supervisory level (Hafford-Letchfield, 2007). At the senior level of management, managers are often

removed from the frontline work and roles and are concerned with rules and procedures at the strategic organisations level that are greatly influence by the political and corporate strategies in the outside world (Hafford-Letchfield, 2007).

Inherent to the social work profession, is a tiered professional system comprised of frontline social workers, supervisors and social work managers working in a management structure or organisation answerable to its management committee. While the way authority is structured varies across organisations, the tiered system exists in the public, private and social service non-profit organisations.

4.2.2 Management functions

In the social services and social work profession, management is defined as "certain functions performed by social workers at all administrative levels within human service organisations which are designed to facilitate the accomplishment of organisational goals" (Weinbach, 2003:5). Smit and Cronje (1999) further note that management's task is to combine, allocate, coordinate and deploy resources in a way that ensures the organisation's goals are achieved in the most productive manner possible. Therefore, in the performance of management, managers perform management functions as coined by Fayol (1949), which are broadly grouped into four, namely, planning, organising, leading and controlling and outlined as follows:

- **Planning:** is one of the most basic but fundamental managerial function and involves the keen understanding of the need, what the organisation plans to do, how it will do this and therefore setting the strategic direction (Nel, 2014). Furthermore, planning involves defining organisational goals and offering ways to achieve these goals (Hellriegel et al., 2008).
- **Organising:** the organising function entails the operationalizing of plans by identifying tasks, allocating them to individuals and groups within the organisation so that plans are turned into action (Hellriegel et al., 2008; Nel, 2014).
- **Leading:** once management has made the plans and organised the structure to deliver on these goals, they must lead the organisation. Thus,

leading is concerned with motivating, communicating and leading others to perform the tasks assigned (Hellriegel et al., 2008).

- **Controlling:** concerns the conscious monitoring of performance and taking corrective action where necessary (Hellriegel et al., 2008).

Weinbach (2003) adds a fifth management function, namely: staffing; that is primarily concerned with the human resource capability of an organisation to deliver on its plans.

The four management functions are interrelated and are a process in organisational management (Smit & Cronje, 1999). While often depicted as a circular loop, the management functions represent an ideal and logical sequence of actions in a process; however, the process is seldom sequential and organised in a linear pattern.

4.2.3 Managers and managerial skills

In their formation and organisational development, organisations (whether explicit or not) work within a set plan and goals, which they aim to achieve through some collective action of individuals working towards the realisation of the same goals. In that context, the person responsible for executing the plan is called the manager (Smit & Cronje, 1999). A manager's competence and skills greatly influence the success or failure of the organisation (Reyneke, 2014). Thus, Smit and Cronje (1999) state that if managers do their work well, through coordinating the efforts of different individuals, the organisation will be successful and this success is measured by the extent to which the organisation achieves its goals and objectives.

In the natural evolution of an organisation, service social workers often transition to managers with very little training, thinking or management strategies (Goldkind & Pardasani, 2013). This is despite the advances made in non-profit management and the social work profession, the social work administration has not followed suit with management competence built into the education and training of graduates (Goldkind & Pardasani, 2013).

At all levels, but more so at the middle management level, managers require a variety

of skill sets which are performed to differing degrees in the managerial hierarchy (Goldkind & Pardasani, 2013). Reyneke (2014) argues that successful managers need to possess high-level skills and expertise in the technical, human and conceptual skills. Therefore, a manager, situation dependent, is required to be highly proficient in the following managerial skills:

- **Conceptual skills:** necessitates higher-level thinking and a holistic view of the organisation and is linked to the strategic thinking and planning processes of an organisation (Smit & Cronje, 1999). At this highest level of management, managers need more conceptual skills and to a lesser degree the interpersonal and technical skills (Reyneke, 2014).
- **Interpersonal skills:** is the relational ability of managers to work with people in their teams and requires that the individual be able to communicate, understand human behaviour, motivate groups and individuals to maximise their potential (Smit & Cronje, 1999). At the middle management level, human interaction and exchanges are key to developing a winning team (Reyneke, 2014).
- **Technical skills:** requires the ability to translate acquired knowledge and techniques in a specific discipline to attain objectives (Smit & Cronje, 1999). The technical know-how of managers is highly valued as a part of the team (Reyneke, 2014).

Therefore, in this context, managers can be described as the people who make decisions about production or services, create job opportunities for employment, promote technology, secure income and contribute to the development of teams and the knowledge production within an organisation (Smit & Cronje, 1999). Furthermore, the managerial levels require a variety of skills and to varying degrees as one ascends up the managerial ladder (Reyneke, 2014).

4.3 Management schools of thought

The management of non-profit social service organisations has never been as topical as it is around the world at present. In fact, the study of management in this context

has been rooted in the classical theories of management where organisations were solely defined as machines and the employees as cogs carrying out highly specialised but limited tasks (Coulshed, Mullender, Jones & Thompson, 2006). In the early 1950 and 1960s, the management of social service organisations came under intense scrutiny with the same amount of resources as had historically been and aimed to soften scientific management theories with more human relations theories (Lewis, 1978; Coulshed et al, 2006). In response to this, non-profit social service organisations have evolved to formalise and categorise their management into the theories originated in business and business management. The following section details the predominant management theories that have influenced and shaped the management of non-profit organisations and more narrowly in social service organisations that are increasingly being expected to formalise their management processes and thus their professional conduct within the social work professions.

4.3.1 Scientific management

Scientific management grew out of the growth of the manufacturing sector of the 1800s, which split the role, and hierarchy of management within organisations (Hellriegel et al., 2008).

The underlying assumption for scientific management is that employees are motivated by job security, wages, financial security and job consistency and therefore job design and employee incentivises need to take this into account (Weinbach, 2003). Moreover, the guiding premise of this school of management is focused on rewards and incentives for employees for work done related to increasing employee productivity and satisfaction (Weinbach, 2003). Thus, the focus was on the careful division of labour with tasks removed from decision-making with great emphasis on research of what works or doesn't and taking corrective measures.

Luhman and Cunliffe (2013) note that the goal of scientific management is to provide managers the tools to monitor performance by continually breaking down any production or service process into simplified tasks and activities that result in higher productivity and less ambiguity in individual roles. In so doing, managers effectively segment and control the workforce; lower labour costs and establish a basis for the

future automation of labour tasks (Luhman & Cunliffe, 2013).

Coulshed et al. (2006) argue that while in the social services management is often far removed from the frontline social work functions, social workers are managers and manage in highly specialised fields that are dynamic and operating in some of the most challenging environments. Further, the authors note that scientific management is particularly lacking as a lens to manage social service organisations precisely for its set principles of outlining prescribed sets of actions to cover all eventualities, therefore, making it rigid and unresponsive to the context of social service organisations and in particular of those in developing nations (Coulshed et.al, 2006).

Moreover, in the social services, the limitations of the scientific approach to management are that the financial rewards in non-profit organisations often pale in comparison to the intrinsic and altruistic motivations of people in the workplace (Weinbach, 2003).

Lastly, the work performed in social service organisations often rely on anecdotal evidence and therefore cannot be rigorously measured, as scholars of scientific management would prescribe.

4.3.2 Universal management

Universal management, as a theoretical approach, is one of the oldest and most popular approaches precisely for its rationale on the universality of management as process and focus on specialisation of labour (Kreitner, 2008). Henri Fayol (Fayol, 1949), the father of universal management, proposed 14 principles of management, which are:

- **Division of Work:** employees are divided according to their specialisation and work; organisational output increases when employees are highly specialised and skilled in one role making processes more efficient;
- **Authority:** managers are given sufficient authority to give orders and also be responsible and accountable for the decisions taken;

- **Discipline:** organisational discipline in the team must be upheld at all costs but methods and approaches differ;
- **Unity of Command:** one direct supervisor for employees;
- **Unity of Direction:** to ensure coordinated action, teams working on the same objective should be supervised by one manager;
- **Subordination of Individual Interests to the General Interest:** individual interests cannot supersede those of the team, including the manager;
- **Remuneration:** remuneration and benefits need to be fair and increase job satisfaction in employees;
- **Centralization:** decision-making is centralised and employees are expected to adhere to decisions made;
- **Chain of Command Chain:** employees are aware of their position relative to the organisational hierarchy and chain of command;
- **Order:** there is a place for everything and the workplace is kept neat and tidy;
- **Equity:** Managers excise fairness, even during times of discipline, towards staff members;
- **Employee retention:** managers minimize employee turnover by employing strategies and employee development plans;
- **Initiative:** employees are given the freedom, within their scope of work, to create and implement new plans; and
- **Team spirit:** managers and organisations should promote unity and team spirit.

Further to the principles, productive organisations should guide the culture and behaviour of managers in organisations. Moreover, managers perform four functions of management, namely, planning, organising, leading and controlling Coulshed et al., 2006)

Of significance are some of the functions that managers need to perform in order to maintain thriving organisations (Fayol, 1949). Engelbrecht and Terblanche (2014) summarise these functions as:

- Planning (the formulation of objectives)
- Organising (the effective coordination of resources to attain objectives)
- Commanding (the art of leading people)
- Coordinating (to provide unity of action)
- Controlling (to ensure that everything is done according to plans).

While these management functions were primarily conceptualised in the business sector, they have become popularised in the social development arena in line with the developing management practice (Coulshed et al., 2006; Engelbrecht & Terblanche, 2014). Therefore, the managerial function, according to Fayol, was the efficient and effective execution of the management functions regardless of the type of organisation (Kreitner, 2008). Productive organisations are then those that have managers who employ the management functions girdled by managerial skills and underpinned by the 14 principles.

4.3.3 Bureaucratic management

Based on the early work of Max Weber during World War II, bureaucratic management developed from bureaucratic organisational design characterised by vertical organisational hierarchies with power distributed along those hierarchical lines, well defined and enforced guidelines and policies that limit functions, promotion and performance mobility based on demonstrated technical ability and competence, rigid, formal communication channels, clear division of labour and emphasis on documentation with high job security for permanent employees (Weinbach, 2003). The logical and rigid structure enables managers to enforce principles and rules easily and therefore retain control over large numbers of employees. Larger organisations and governments tend to prefer this type of organisational design and management style (Coulshed et al., 2006).

In his early works, Weber described the bureaucratic organisational structure as that having hierarchy of posts, offices rather than individuals (Coulshed et al., 2006).

In this structure, each office or position carried several responsibilities that then were delegated to a person with the necessary skills to fulfil the required work (Coulshed et

al., 2006). Fundamentally the structure of the ideal organisation would be a pyramid with the head of the organisation occupying the top position, the middle management in between the top and the frontline workers and assistants with power and authority flowing downwards (Coulshed et al., 2006). Therefore, in that organisational structure, the bigger the organisation, the taller the pyramid becomes and the more complex the relationships between the positions becomes.

According to Weber (1947), the five main characteristics of a bureaucracy are:

- A clear division of labour and activities rationally distributed as official duties;
- The distribution of duties through formal administrative hierarchy supervised by the position above it;
- Prescribed system of rules and procedures enforced with consequences if not adhered to;
- The elimination of personal considerations in the process of professional environment by setting clear personal and professional boundaries; and
- Employment and salaries based on technical qualifications with job descriptions and person specifications.

This form of management is perceived to be cost effective, limits individual scope of work and helps ensure efficiency and mastery of particular skills. Its greatest critique is that in the social work context, a rigid approach makes the organisation and individuals less responsive to the needs of the stakeholders, reduces the autonomy of social workers and makes them less responsive to the environment and needs of clients as is required by the profession and statutory bodies thus making it an uneasy for the social services.

Weinbach (2003) notes that most social service organisations rely on government funding for survival, they tend to emulate the structure of the government departments, which makes them rigid and not agile enough to respond to a dynamic external environment, which has implications for organisational survival. Therefore, social workers tailor the services of clients around the unique and lived experiences

of those clients (Coulshed et al., 2006).

4.4 Governance and the South African non-profit organisation

The previous section focussed on schools of management as the foundation for understanding the approaches to management and its evolution in the context of organisations. This section considers the context provided by the previous section on management, and expands the discussion to focus on governance as it pertains to South African non-profit organisations, volunteers and the developmental imperative of the country.

4.4.1 NPO Act and the NPO constitutions

Internationally, the governance of an organisation is often the head of the organisation giving strategic input, partaking in high-level decisions and forms the legal and fiduciary responsibility for the organisations. In most cases, it is the highest level of decision-making and instituted as a result of the legal framework of specific countries governing non-profit organisations. Similarly, the South African Non-profit Act, (RSA, 1997b) enshrines a legal body, often called the Board of Directors, Board of Trustees or Management Committee, which is responsible for the governance of the organisation. Moreover, NPOs appoint members according to the prescripts of a founding document called a Constitution which outlines the procedures for the appointment of members, the legal parameters of the organisations, decision-making processes and its financial accountability (RSA, 1997b). This section explores how this legal framework has been put into practice in South Africa and elsewhere within the context of non-profit organisations.

4.4.2 Organisational structure and governance in non-profit organisations

The size of a non-profit organisation does not determine the managerial sophistication albeit it may have a bearing on the resources and the available skills (Letts, Ryan & Grossman, 1999). In the non-profit sector, managerial skill and capacity are often major challenges intrinsically linked to resources (Letts, Ryan & Grossman, 1999). Letts, Ryan and Grossman (1999), further suggest that often the employees and

volunteers embody the mission and the distinctive essence and are deeply committed to the mission of the organisation, which gives them job purpose.

In non-profits, the volunteer leadership on the Boards of charity or social service organisations has historically been the enterprise of volunteer community leaders, particularly in women's organisations that played a key role in the early years of social services (Patel, 2009; De Jager, 2014). Consequently, the organisational structure and frontline service has favoured women. Organisational structure is the representation of the organisation, its human resources and delineates lines of authority and decision-making and indicates relationships and hierarchies (Letts et, al., 1999).

An organisation's people are its most valuable assets and this is particularly true in social service organisations where the bulk of the work is delivered through volunteers.

In a typical example, the organisation's rudimentary structure may be that there is a management committee at the helm of the organisation made up of individuals who are often unpaid (voluntary basis) but may receive a per diem for a committee sitting or costs reimbursed. The management committee is responsible for the final decision-making, oversight of some of the management tasks required for the functioning of the organisation (Bowen, 2002). The management committee is legally responsible for all final decisions made by and on behalf of the organisation; they resolve labour disputes and are responsible for managing the director or manager of the organisation (Ryan, 2002).

Directly below the management committee is the Director/Manager/CEO of the organisation, this person is the one responsible for the execution of the management functions and tasks within the organisation. For accountability and transparency, this person reports to the management committee and is tasked with steering the organisation and delivering on the mandate of the organisation (Eadie, 1998). The director manages the staff and volunteers in the organisation.

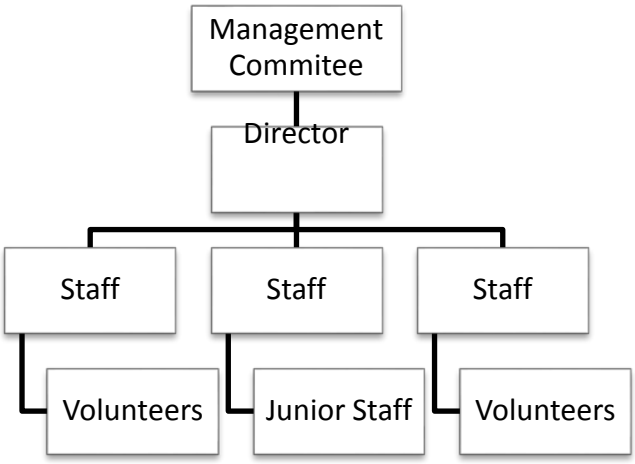

Figure 4.2: Visual representation of a typical organisational (structure) organogram of a non-profit organisation.

The above representation is a representation of an organisation with the tiers of management as previously outlined in the sections preceding this. In the South African context, there is often an additional structure that compounds and often complicates the understanding on the management structure and contributes to a convoluted understanding of organisational design, governance and the distribution of labour. Historically, non-profit organisations were characterised by a flat structure with mainly two levels of accountability, that of the management committee and the director with the staff and volunteers reporting directly to the director (Howe, 2002).

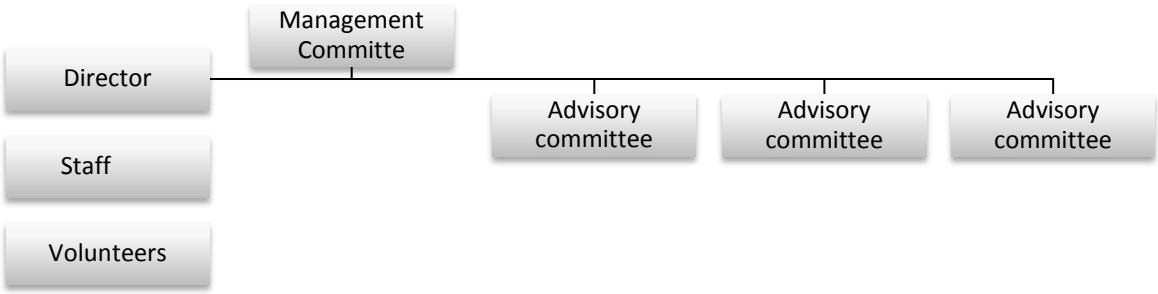

Figure 4.3: Organisational (structure) organogram of a non-profit organisation with advisory/steering committees.

In the South African context, the organisational structure of non-profit organisations has predominantly been fluid and inclusive of volunteers in leadership positions of the organisation. The national NPOs audit report commissioned by the Department of Social Development (DSD, 2010), found that national organisations have a bottom up

approach and elect Board members from the community, therefore, an organisation may have a management committee with the legal responsibilities towards the organisation composed of a variety of players with varying skillsets. Secondly, in organisations that have multiple tiers, the second and third tiers, are made up of individuals from both staff members and volunteers (DSD, 2010).

Similarly, individuals who may or may not serve on the management committees, chair smaller advisory or steering committees and perform management tasks such as a financial committee, human resource committee, planning committee or fundraising committee within the four management functions (planning, organising, leading and control) in their respective portfolios (DSD, 2010). These smaller portfolios often operated autonomously and at times reported directly to the greater management committee or to the director. It is important to distinguish between the satellite branches and affiliate organisations to umbrella organisations, which have a similar structure but often operate independently (DSD, 2010).

The DSD report notes that, in network or affiliate organisations, branches are legally registered under the umbrella organisation and often have centralised functions in many respects even if the branch were to have a steering committee (DSD, 2010). In the case of affiliate organisations, umbrella organisations offer some kind of collective infrastructure, reputation mileage or resources but the organisations are members registered independently and are their own autonomous entities with self-determination. Therefore, affiliates have their own structures but may, from time to time, come together with the umbrella organisation for joint ventures (DSD, 2010).

The advent of this type of structure can be attributed to the abundance of free labour, limited resources and the relative ease of starting an organisation serving communities.

4.5 Essential management tasks

Managers are responsible for managing activities, which determine their classification in the organisation. Some of these activities are grouped into similar tasks and thus form management tasks and at times are areas/departments of the organisation (Smit

& Cronje, 1999). The researcher adopted both an inductive and deductive approach to the formulation of the essential management tasks as outlined in this section. Based on extensive literature review on management tasks, the researcher inductively synthesised 8 essential management tasks that were reoccurring in virtually every scholarly text reviewed by the researcher. Secondly, during the empirical study, participants verified the essential management tasks using deductive approaches. Therefore, this section presents both the deductive and inductive literature on the essential management tasks, namely, strategic planning, human resource management, financial management, transformation or change management, project management, fundraising, information and communication management and lastly, monitoring and evaluation. These tasks are presented in their larger context and furthermore as pertains to social service NPOs.

4.5.1 Strategic planning

De Wit and Meyer (2010) note that strategy is a disputed concept with different people and sectors adopting a working definition pertinent to their sector. While there are differing opinions, and defining strategic planning is an elusive task, this section plans to offer a working definition as pertains to NPOs in the social services.

Quinn (1980) made the important distinction between strategy, objectives, goals, policy and programmes by defining strategy as follows the plan or pattern that integrates an organisation's major goals, policies and actions to achieve its objectives. Therefore, strategies exist in different levels in organisations with each activity having its own set of goals, policies and actions that aim to achieve the activity objective.

Effective formal strategies contain for main elements (Quinn, 1980), namely:

- They incorporate the most important goals to be achieved, give clear policy guidelines for action and programmes.
- They develop around a few concepts that give them direction and focus.
- Organisations build strong institutional mechanisms to be able to respond to the changing internal and external environments.

- The organisations have a number of hierarchical structures that are mutually supporting.

Therefore, according to Quinn (1980), effective strategies encompass a clear direction, decisive objectives, maintaining the initiative and structure that is coordinated and committed as leadership for the delivery and oversight as the most important critical success factors.

Moreover, implicit in strategic planning, is strategy. Mintzberg (1987) posits strategy as several positions, therefore, strategy can be defined as:

- Strategy as planning: consciously intended course or direction for action and behaviours and or guidelines for dealing with situations.
- Strategy as ploy: the development of tactics to outsmart opponents or competitors.
- Strategy as pattern: sequential actions taken and behaviours that manifest once a substantive action has been deployed. This is retrospective "strategy" as it is contingent on lessons from actions already taken.
- Strategy as position: this locates organisations in their external environments and therefore positions strategy as the mediating position between the internal organisation and the external environment.
- Strategy as perspective: is an ingrained way of seeing the world relative to one's position. Therefore, in organisational development, this implies that strategy is an abstract construct existing only in the minds of interested parties or the collective mind of individuals united by a common interest.

As seen above, strategy can be many things which are all situational and necessitate particular skills, knowledge, capabilities and actions in other to achieve. However, they do not explicitly indicate what a strategy is and the critical dimensions that are included in developing a strategy. Therefore, the six critical dimensions offered by Hax and Majluf (1996) are important in providing a unified definition of strategy. These six dimensions are:

- Clearly defined, coherent and unifying integrated patter of decisions,
- A means of establishing organisational purpose for long-term objectives,

- A definition of organizational competitiveness and niche market,
- Response to the external opportunities, threats and playing up internal strengths and weaknesses to achieve a competitive advantage,
- Logical system for differentiating managerial tasks at all management levels,
- Defining the economic and non-economic contribution the organisation makes to its stakeholders.

Thus, this definition and multidimensional view embraces both organisational purpose for existence as well as long term planning for sustainability within a dynamic environment. Therefore, any organisation, no matter its size or culture undergoes some kind of strategic planning process in which it defines its key priorities over a certain period of time and commits resources and time (Eadie, 1998). Hughes and Wearing (2007) conceptualise strategic planning as a planned approach to change, which organisations adopt to bring them closer to their goals and objectives. Furthermore, strategic planning differs from operational and programmes planning, which are primarily concerned with day-to-day planning but rather, strategic planning looks at the holistic organisation and defines its plan of action.

Strategic planning involves the development of a mission, key objectives, plans of action and resources as well as developing or implementing policies that position the organisation in such a way that it is able to respond to changing environments (Eadie, 1998; Hughes &Wearing, 2007).

The turbulent environment that social service organisations operate in, means that the client, funding, staff and programmes shift over time and requires managers with astute vision and leadership from those at the helm of the organisation in order to develop plans that are responsive to these dynamic factors (Brody, 1993). Thus, strategic planning can be aptly defined as the process of addressing change (Brody, 1993). And so, in this instance, strategic planning is the setting of future goals and sets of actions to help achieve these goals.

There are various planning aids that can be used to visualise the strategic plan of an organisation, some of which include the PERT Charts, Logical Frameworks, Theory of

Change and Gantt Charts, all articulating the sequential steps necessary in the execution of work to achieve the results projected (Drucker, 1986). However, these tools have emerged from commerce and have limited adaptation for the social services and thus often provide limited information on the appropriateness of the steps, their logic nor feedback about what the performance of those activities yields (Brody, 1993). Furthermore, they require sophisticated skills and professional jargon to develop and use and therefore excludes many people from using them. This is especially true in the South African context where the educational attainment of the majority of the population is below secondary education.

Anheier (2005) expands the notion of strategic planning by saying that strategic planning often takes the form of project management as it requires organisations and managers to identify and revisit their mission state, develop and prioritise the goals they will tackle to meet the mission, develop the strategies to meet the goals, identify measurable programmes and activities that need to be implemented to meet the set goals, monitor and update the plan through plan performance reviews.

Organisations that alter their mission and change organisational direction are said to be in mission-drift and do so because they do not have clearly defined directions, objectives and a human resource plan on how to get this process underway (Drucker, 1990; Brody, 1993).

Furthermore, David (2013) defines strategy as a management tool for formulating a strategy, implementing your strategy and evaluating the cross-functional decisions that enable an organisation to achieve its objectives.

For the organisational strategy to be effective, it needs to combine various elements and comprehensive in order to embrace and best articulate the organisational purpose in order to provide a meaningful framework for organisational development.

4.5.2 Human resource management

Scott (2015) notes that organisational development scholarship has changed from the age-old understanding of organisations as being macro structures with top down

process shaping organisational structures, actions and with staff being submissive subjects to wider external forces. Recently, scholars are attending to the ways in which individuals and actors within organisations shape wider institutional and ecological systems (Scott, 2015).

The human capital in any organisation is its most distinguishable trait and asset and in the non-profit sector, there is an abundance of this human capital resource (Letts, Ryan & Grossman, 1999). Therefore, the challenge is often not where to find individuals but rather how to redirect and channel the energy in a way that is constructive and serves to advance the organisational mission and objectives (Letts et al., 1999). The process of recruiting, channelling the energies of the right people in the right position and keeping them happy is also known as human resource management (Letts et al., 1999). Rather, the strategies and practices of recruiting, retaining and motivating people is the human resources and well within reach of non-profit organisations regardless of size with most performing this management task passively.

Thus, the management of people in organisations forms a key part in the success of the organisation. The process of identifying roles needed in an organisation, recruiting and selecting people to fill those positions, managing and appraising the performance of those individuals against organisational goals is known as human resources management (Anheier, 2005).

Stemming from organisations developing their organisational strategic plans as outlined above, there was an emergence of the field of Human Resources Management (HRM) which aimed to link the organisational strategy to the personnel or human capital of an organisation in order to improve organisational efficacy (Farnham, 2015). Human resources therefore can be described as both an approach to personnel management as well as all traditional tasks related to personnel management (Farnham, 2015).

Farnham (2015) notes that HRM is profoundly specialist and professionally driven and has the following features:

- Staffing (the employment of staff to execute activities)

- Performance (the monitoring staff in their execution of tasks)
- Change management, and (the shifting or roles to ensure efficacy)
- Administration (the management of administration as pertains to staff)

These four features are central to HRM and ensure that there is an organisational approach to managing people so they can deliver on the organisational objectives in the most efficient manner.

Guest (1987) expands on HRM features to include personnel management as short term, time perspective, a pluralist, collective approach to managing employment relations, bureaucratic, centralised, organisational structures and cost minimisation evaluation criteria. More recently, HRM is progressing towards a long-term view, strategic time perspective, a unitary and individual approach to managing employment relations, more organic, devolved, flexible organisational structures and maximum utilisation of human resources.

Table 4.1: Business strategy and HR strategy choices: some examples

Strategy	Employee role behaviour	HR strategies
Innovation	• High degree of creative behaviour • Long term focus • High levels of co-operative behaviour • Moderate concern for quality • Great degree of risk taking and high tolerance of ambiguity	• Jobs require close interaction and coordination • Performance appraisal longer term and focused on group-based achievements • Rewards emphasising internal equity, not market-based pay • Low pay rates • Broad career paths to reinforce developing broad range of skills
Quality enhancement	• Repetitive job behaviours • Long or medium-term focus	• Fixed job descriptions • High levels for employee participation

	• Moderate amount of cooperative behaviour • Modest concern for quantity of output	• Individual and group criteria for performance appraisals • Egalitarian treatment of employees • Extensive and continued training of employees.
Cost reduction	• Relative repetitive and predictable behaviour • Short term focus • Autonomous/individual activity • Moderate concern for quality • High concern for quantity of output	• Fixed job descriptions • Narrowly defined jobs, encouraging specialisation • Results-oriented performance appraisals • Close monitoring of market pay levels • Minimum levels of employee training

Table 4.1 as adapted from Schuler and Jackson (1987) in Farnham (2015) presents the HR system and practices as developed once management has chosen a philosophy or strategic direction to follow. Thus, the table above represents strategies (column three) employed by organisations and managers to extract the most out of employees (column two) and to control employee behaviours. In this instance, where the strategy is innovation as means of attaining a competitive edge, then the manager needs to set up predictable sets of behaviours that stimulate innovation and creativity (Farnham, 2015). In cases where quality is a concern for improvement, managers use a combination of individual and group work flows, job security and egalitarian treatment of staff to achieve this objective (Farnham, 2015). Lastly, in organisations where cost reduction is a strategic objective, then a keen monitoring of market related salaries, developments and decisions are taken that require minimal training and development of stuff but a relatively high output.

Brody (1993) argues for a human resource plan that builds staff development into the job and person needs analysis is of vital importance to the incentivising of employees

and therefore their retention. Through a continual process of growing and building the capacity of the human capital in an organisation, the managers equip the organisation with a valuable asset that can adapt timeously and respond to the changing climate within which the organisation operates (Brody, 1993). Job performance targets and regular reviews assist the manager in identifying candidates for staff development (Brody, 1993).

Smit and Cronje (1999) describe human resource management as the appointment, development and maintenance of the human resources of an organisation to enable the organisation to be competitive.

By contrast, Letts et al (1999) define human resources as one of the most vital strategies for delivering on mission and thus require sensitivity in planning and management in order deliver.

In the employer-employee relations of an organisation, there are a number of levels, which are included in the human resource management process. De Jager (2014) suggests four key stages of the human resource management, namely:

- Recruitment and selection: in productive organisations, managers understand that matching competent staff with the right jobs is vital for the organisation. Organisations identify the needs of each position, list the person characteristics, skills and key responsibilities and then embark on a search for the right candidate to fill the position (Brody, 1993).
- Job descriptions: De Jager (2014) describes a job description as a written statement of the job purpose, what the jobholder does and how this is done.
- Retention: in social service organisations where funding can shift unpredictably and funding reductions are rife, staff retention and keeping the right people can be a managerial challenge that oftentimes seems insurmountable (Brody, 1993). Therefore, staff retention refers to the strategies employed by managers and organisations to keep their staff and volunteers (De Jager, 2014).

- Appraisals: job performance targets and regular reviews assist the manager in identifying candidates for staff development (Brody, 1993).

South African human resources are governed by three main pieces of legislation, namely the Labour Relations Act (RSA, 1995), Employment Equity Act (1998a) and the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (RSA, 1997c). These policies provide guidelines on employer-employee relations, set up the legal framework in which organisations and employees operate, outline consequences and procedures for infringements to the outlined standard operating procedures.

Therefore, HRM as a management task is infinitely fluid, flexible, contingent over time and driven by external contexts, the competitive edge of an organisation and age of the organisation (Farnham, 2015). In the social service organisations, this is of particular relevance as the age of the organisation, services rendered, available resources and external contexts shape the organisational strategy and therefore its personnel management. A great risk, as indicated in Chapter 3 on volunteers, is the abundance of individuals assuming voluntary unpaid work in social services but possess low to no skills in order to support the agility and long-term sustainability of an organisation in responding to a dynamic external environment that has implications for how organisations function. Compounding this, is the fact that some of these low skilled volunteers, serve at the helm of organisation by being office bearers on the management committees of social service NPOs and are therefore tasked with needing to be responsive to the environment in developing a competitive organisational strategy, planning its implementation and resourcing it both financially and with personnel in order to achieve the organisational mission.

Within the South African social services and non-profit organisations, the source of labour and staffing is largely volunteers who do not fall comfortably within the legal prescripts of employment law and therefore are most vulnerable to abuse and exploitation.

4.5.3 Financial Management

Historically, social service organisations have relied on combinations of income from

government grants, the private sector, international and local foundation grants and contracts, member contribution and some collected from fees for their financial sustenance; but this can come under scrutiny and requires more astuteness in the way it is managed (Weinbach, 2003). Interestingly, the changing economic environment has resulted in pushes for financial sustainability; thus, more organisations are looking at monetising their services or adopting hybrid models and taking steps to becoming social enterprises. Smit & Cronje (1999) posit that the financial management of an organisation is concerned with the acquisition, utilisation and control of money the organisation needs to finance its activities.

Traditionally, financial management has referred to developing budgets, monitoring expenditure and reporting, therefore, good managers were people who were prudent with finances and stayed within budget (Weinbach, 2003; De V Smit, 2014).

Ethical and accountable management of money continues to be an important indicator of good management and therefore organisational performance (Weinbach, 2003; De V Smit, 2014).

Financial management as a task was assigned to middle management and top management, however, in the pursuit for more diverse sources of funding, staff at different levels have come to contribute to the development of proposals and managing relationships with donors (Weinbach, 2003).

Wyatt (2004) specifically notes that the role of the volunteers and management committee in financial management is to all times be aware of the general financial condition of the organization. In order for the volunteers to perform this job they will need to have very specific information at hand and define the indicators to be tracked. Wyatt (2004) further notes that traditionally, management committees track the following key financial indicators:

- Cash on hand (to make sure there is enough to pay salaries and expenses)
- Cash-flow projections (to make sure financial plans are realistic and adequate)

- Income and expenditures (to make sure the NGO is earning and spending at appropriate levels)
- Relation of actual to planned budgets (to make sure anticipated income and expenses are actually met or to understand the reasons for variations)
- Balance of reserves (to make sure they are not depleted below a fixed level).

Consequently, volunteers require the skills and financial literacy to enable them to decode this financial information, synthesise meaning and its implications for the organisation and act accordingly when needed. This need for sophisticated skills is particularly problematic in South Africa because of the legacy of apartheid where the majority of the population were denied a quality education.

Social services organisations, precisely because of their non-profit motives, are constantly working to generate more income to sustain their activities and meet the intended goals. De V Smit (2014) notes that in order to generate this income, organisations need to develop a fundraising strategy that outlines how much they need to raise, where it's going to come from and what it will be utilised for. A fundraising strategy is a scan and map of the funding environment, future projections of where income is going to come from and requires that it be articulated into a fundraising plan in order to effect it into action (De V Smit, 2014).

Organisations, through their expenditure, may acquire assets through purchase or donations received and these are recorded in a log and captured in monetary value on the annual financial statements (De V Smit, 2014).

In dealing with some of the challenges that are unique to the non-profit sector, non-profit managers are placed under pressure to execute new strategies and organisational structures for sustainability that are bringing them closer to their business counterparts because it requires entrepreneurial skills and innovation (Ogliastri, Jager & Prado, 2015).

Despite these challenges posed by the market and increased competition in the funding environment, many organisations continue to rely on grants and donations to achieving their social mission without adequate adaptation to the donors' increased

stringent criteria and expectations of organisational performance (Ogliastriet al., 2015).

Moreover, financial management is more than the generation of income to support activities. De V Smit (2014) notes that financial management is a sophisticated process that includes the following:

- The development of a financial forecast and budgets which inform the funding strategy and amount of money to be raised in order to implement a project from beginning to completion;
- Going out to raise the money, securing the funds and deciding how to utilise these;
- Monitoring the finances and how they are spent; and
- Financial reporting on the income received and expenditure over a given period of time in the form of income statements and annual financial reports; this reporting is both to donors and the organisation's stakeholders.

Thus, the financial sustainability of an organisation is highly dependent on its ability to raise funds through a logical and planned process (funding strategy and plan), utilise the funds in a manner that is in line with the plan (budget), monitor the progress of programmes against a predetermined financial plan and then report on the funds utilised (income statements and annual financial statements).

4.5.4 Transformation/change management

Non-profit organisations operate within a dynamic and fluid environment that is influenced by the socio-economic, political and global events. Most notably is globalisation and its influence on national states has changed the cultural dynamics of organisations making nation state borders more porous and enabled more mobility cross countries (Eriksen, 2002). Furthermore, technology has played a huge role in changing the way organisations communicate, brand and market themselves but also the way they gain access to information (Reyneke, 2014).

Weinbach (2003) notes that with the changing social work environment and the people it serves, change management is a key management task. By definition, change management is the process of managing and supporting the transition of an organisation in response to the environmental, technological, geopolitical, funding and maintaining continuity of operations with as little disruption as possible (Weinbach, 2003).

Organisational change efforts target the shallow end of the organisation by focussing on structure of the organisational culture which is generally adaptive and incrementally focussed of making the organisation efficient (Stead & Stead, 2014). However, in transformational change, requires fundamental efforts to shift the beliefs, values and linear steps to organisational change to new ways of doing things (Stead & Stead, 2014).

Dunphy, Griffiths and Benn (2007) note that successful transformation and therefore organisational sustainability allows organisations to reflect, refine core values and evaluate the nature of its work, relationships and stakeholders in order to order to effect real paradigm shifts. In South Africa, due to its political past that resulted in racial and gender inequality, is in constant negotiations of transformation at all levels of society. Moreover, this process of reflection is particularly important because of the country's changing socio-political economy, cultural diversity and the politics of place. Social service organisations, by their very nature, serve communities of diverse demographical and cultural backgrounds and therefore are constantly in need of self-reflection, refining core values and relationships and the nature of their work to ensure that true transformation and change management takes place.

In South Africa, transformation is a critical management competence that requires a sensitivity and responsiveness to the racial history of the country (RSA, 1997a). Furthermore, as noted in Chapter 2, legislative frameworks compel government, business and non-profit sectors to actively work at redress and transformation. However, legislation on its own cannot directly effect change and transformation; therefore, social service managers need to employ change and transformation strategies to deal with radical transformation in service delivery approach with a

heightened focus from the residual approach for delivery of services to a developmental social development approach, as outlined in the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997a). A true commitment to change management includes managing conflict and resistant to change (Weinbach, 2003).

Thus, the impact of changing global environment and technology, a transformation agenda enshrined in social welfare policies compels social work managers to hone their skills in transformation and change management.

4.5.5 Project management

In the social services, programmes rely heavily on the ability of managers within organisations to raise funding to execute projects or programmes. A key part of this managerial role is the ability to design, resource, execute, monitor and evaluate a comprehensive social service (Herbst, 2014).

Projects are a series of activities that an organisation undertakes in order to produce outcomes with a clearly defined start and end period (Spolander & Martin, 2012). Thus, project management entails the managing and monitoring of the process of implementing a project within the specified parameters of the organisation. Furthermore, project management applied in the social work professions and care services are often tasked with improving performance with very limited resources in a dynamic and changing internal and external policy and social environments (Spolander & Martin, 2012).

Spolander and Martin (2012) distinguish the main characteristics of project management as being planned, and serves the function of achieving an objective within a clearly set timeframe, using the available human resources with the necessary skill set to complete the tasks with no direct role for the manager. Table 4.2 below as adapted from Spolander and Martin (2012:17) tabulates some of these distinctions.

Table 4.2 Features of Project Management

	Projects
Features	Planned, implemented and managed, normally involving resource constraints.
Function	Achieve objectives and then end the project.
Time requirements	Limited timescales with clear end.
Product	On-going provision of services and products.
Human resources	Teams are generally more dynamic and composed of individuals with necessary skills to complete the project. Not normally aligned to organisational structure.
Manager's role	Varies but normally the line manager has no direct role.

Managers need to understand the stages of the project cycle and associated tasks. Herbst (2014) adapts Weyers' (2011) project management model and proposes the following project cycle, stages and tasks that managers need to manage a project:

- **Stage 1: Project conceptualisation and initiation-** this is the initial stage where the problem is defined, the needs analysed and undertaking a feasibility study to test the achievability of the project. In this instance, a cost benefit analysis is usually an important exercise.
- **Stage 2: Project planning-** after the feasibility study is conducted, then the manager can start planning the project by performing the following tasks:
    - Defining the project,
    - Putting together the project parameters and setting the indicators for success,
    - Listing the tasks to be completed and allocating them to the various individuals,
    - Working out a time schedule for the project,

  - Conducting a cost analysis of the project, and
  - Formulating an action plan.

- **Stage 3: Project execution-** this is the stage where the plans developed in stage 2 are put into action through the delivery of the project. At this stage, the monitoring of key milestones of the project is vital and can be done through various monitoring and evaluation tools.
- **Stage 4: Project closure**-on completion of the project, a review is conducted to determine whether the project should be terminated or implemented again with changes. Furthermore, the outcomes are reported to donors and stakeholders.

Although the project plan is presented in a linear format, it is usually circular. A second approach is the model of a typical programme cycle as outlined in Adirondack (2006). Adirondack (2006) outlines the ten steps in programme cycle. The steps presented here are outlined in a linear form for presentation purposes but in practice they form a cycle of action and praxis. The ten steps are as follows:

- **Step 1 Assess the context:** an assessment of the external and internal environment is needed to establish the need to be met.
- **Step 2 Clarify/confirm core purpose and broad objectives:** the organisation then needs to clarify its own purpose and broad objectives to see whether the need can be met with the available resources.
- **Step 3 Collect information:** as much information as possible needs to be gathered on the identified need. This information informs how the need is to be met.
- **Step 4 Set objectives:** specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time-bound objectives need to be clearly laid out to inform how the organisation plans to meet the need.
- **Step 5 Plan:** this involves spanning the activities and staff to be allocated to perform activities.
- **Step 6 DO IT (implementation):** entails deploying staff and resources to actually do the programme.

- **Step 7 Monitor against short-term targets:** long term and short-term targets are set and certain interval actions are monitored against the short-term goals.
- **Step 8 Monitor against long-term targets:** involves collecting information about the progress of activity while it is happening.
- **Step 9 Review:** the review process involves taking all the gathered information and putting it into a usable form.
- **Step 10 Evaluate:** evaluation shows whether the activity or programme has actually achieved what it set out to achieve. This involves the efficiency and effectiveness of resources used and actions taken.

After evaluation, the steps usually repeat themselves. Most organisations follow some form of programme planning (Adirondack, 2006). In most instances, the project plan is captured in a written document known as a business plan, project plan or strategic plan document.

In organisations, the Board of directors or management committee are the elected representatives who are charged with ensuring the interests of the organisations are safeguarded, the mission, vision and objectives are met (Rothaermel, 2013). Moreover, their responsibilities entail strategic management or project management processes of formulating the vision, mission, strategies to deliver on the mission, monitoring the progress and providing oversight to the organisation (Rothaermel, 2013). This understanding of management committee member responsibilities is in line with the processes presented by Weyers (2011) and Adirondack (2006) above. As congruent as is the understanding of the project management process presented above, it speaks to process and very little to the responsibilities and where they lie within the management hierarchies of organisations. Therefore, models speak to the *what* and the *how* but not to the *who* and the *why.*

Thus, the five governance functions of volunteers on management committees presented by Hitt, Ireland and Hoskisson (2009) offer a much-needed understanding of the responsibilities of volunteers within the organisation. These five functions are as follows:

- Volunteers are responsible for the oversight of the strategic direction of the organisation,
- Volunteers are responsible for the auditing and financial performance of the organisation, which includes ensuring that the audited financial statements represent a true and accurate picture of the financial position of the organisation,
- They are responsible for the selection, succession planning of the director, determining the pay/salary and the terms for termination of the director,
- Assessing risk (situational analysis), developing strategies for safeguarding the organisation against impending risk,
- Volunteers are responsible for ensuring that the organisation operates within the bounds of the law, upholding organisational ethics and building or preserving reputational capital.

Failure to perform these critical responsibilities by volunteers may lead to serious problems arising and the organisation not being able to meet its mission and objectives. Of note, each of the five volunteer responsibilities above as presented by Hitt, Ireland and Hoskisson (2009) and Rothaermel (2013) point to the strategic planning, financial management, human resource management, project management and public relations and communication as defined to be some of the essential management tasks included in this study. Moreover, volunteers on the management committees are an incredible source of power within an organisation as they are responsible for the governance of an organisation, thus, particular attention is needed to understand how they perform these essential management tasks in relation the larger ecosystem of management and schools of thought.

4.5.6 Fundraising

Part of designing an implementable project or ensuring organisational sustainability, is to ensure that there are sufficient resources to support the planned activities. In the NPO sector, most organisations rely on the charitable giving of donors and government funding (Habib & Kotze, 2003). Securing funding is an international challenge for all NPOs and thus forms a substantial part of the organisational function

and preoccupies the role of managers (Herbst, 2014).

Legally, it is increasingly becoming the view that, volunteers and management committees as a whole, have fiduciary responsibility over organisations and therefore are some critical areas of capacity in the overall performance of organisations (United Nations, 2012). In relation to this growing global view, volunteers shoulder a great legal responsibility of financial oversight which requires astuteness, integrity and a growing skill set that is needed.

Financing social welfare and care is known as fundraising and simply refers to the act of mobilisation resources, managing and reporting on those resources (De V Smit, 2014). Unlike the private sector where the income comes primarily through the market economy, in the social services and voluntary sector, income comes from state, grants from donors, income from entrepreneurial activities and voluntary gifts (Weinbach, 2003; Hafford-Letchfield, 2007).

South African funding opportunities for social services come through two separate agents, namely government funding and nongovernmental funding.

Table 4.3 NPO sources of funding

Government funding	Non-government funding
National Lotteries Act (RSA, 1997d)	Corporates or private business through CSI/CSR/SED
Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs)- 21 in SA	Foundations/Trusts or philanthropic initiatives
Public Finance Management Act (RSA, 1999)	Social enterprise development/self-sustaining projects
Department of Social Development Policy on Financial Awards to Service Providers (RSA, 2011)	Crowd funding (both internet based and offline mechanisms)

National Development Agency Act (RSA, 1998b)	Individual charitable giving (middle class and high-net-worth individuals)
Municipal Finance Act (RSA, 2003)	
Social Assistance Act (RSA, 2004)	

A good manager is able to identify the potential funding sources and develop a funding proposal that articulates the project to be implemented (Herbst, 2014). Prior to developing a funding proposal, managers need to research funders and align themselves with funders who fund similar projects (De V Smit, 2014).

Anheier (2005) says that while non-profit organisations rely heavily on fundraising activities to support their work, there is no such thing as a "pure" non-profit anymore. The majority of organisations are involved in some form of entrepreneurial activity to generate earned income in addition to the grants and government contracts. This earned income is often from monetizing some or all of their activities, selling services or membership, consulting on best practice models which has allowed the non-profit sector to gain many advantages because of its closeness to the market and therefore the widespread use of business management in the governance of non-profit organisations (Young & Salamon, 2003; Anheier, 2005).

It is precisely this closeness to business that has resulted in non-profit management and governance models styled on the ones of business. However, the non-profit sector is distinctively different and thus requires differing approaches that are people centred, inclusive, uphold the ideology of Ubuntu and address the developmental challenges of inequality and racial disparities unique to the South African context.

Given the pervasive sustainability, both financial and otherwise, South African non-profits need and globally, is the emergence of sustainability committees or fundraising subcommittees to oversee the fundraising needs of the organisation (United Nations, 2012). In some cases, non-profits are employing professional fundraisers or "business development managers" solely for developing the investment case of a non-profit and then raising the funds through donors (Stead & Stead, 2014).

Fundraising, as mentioned in sections above, take on several forms, however, the majority of funding comes through grant applications done with funding proposals. Proposal writing is in itself a sophisticated skill. Therefore, a good funding proposal has some key elements and content that are critical for building one's case for funding. A funding proposal is the most important document that any organisation needs to develop and requires time, skills, research and knowledge of the donors funding criteria and a clear and conscience synthesis of the project being proposed for funding (Northon & Culshaw, 2000). The elements of a good proposal include:

- Summary: A clear summation of the entre proposal with highlights.
- Introducing the organisation: this section outlines the organisation, what it does, its number of years, the track record and why it is the proposing or best position to do the work. This section often includes a section on the governance (profiles of volunteers), how management committees operate and what the leadership composition, decision making and accountability are constituted in the organisation.
- Problem statement: introduce the problem(s), extent of the problem, why it exists, some solutions that have been tried and their outcome.
- Your plan: what it is you intend to do to address the problem, the aim of your project, how you will achieve success and motivate why your proposed solution will work.
- Monitoring and evaluation: how will you monitor the implementation and how will you measure your success. The goals, outcomes and how they will be measured are key things to include in your proposal.
- Presenting the budget: linked to the plan developed above is stating how much you need to raise/ask for, this needs to be as detailed as possible without asking questions and should include all income for the project and the expected expenditure.

More recently, funding proposals are submitted with a number of supporting documents, particularly, audited financial statements, that indicate the financial wellbeing of an organisation.

Once the funding has been secured, the organisation has to report on the progress of the project as it relates to the proposed outcomes and times as well as the budget. Financial reporting is done to ensure that activities were conducted in keeping with the planned budget (De V Smit, 2014).

Fundraising, therefore, is one of the most important management tasks to the survival of an organisation. It is also the one management tasks that requires the integration of all the other essential management tasks as it requires organisations to engage in strategic planning to articulate their project proposal, cost and develop a human resource plan to be implemented, build internal financial management to be able to budget and report on expenditure, if necessary do transformation management, once all that information has been developed, it informs the fundraising approach and proposal, information gathering and communication during implementation as well as deploying a monitoring and evaluation plan related to measuring the proposed project outcomes. Therefore, the other essential management tasks are both enablers as well as preconditions for successful fundraising.

4.5.7 Information, communications and systems management

Communication is a key function of organisations and most organisations communicate whether intentional or not. Therefore, the manager plays a key role in the management of information, communication flow and maintain the existing systems within organisations (Smit & Cronje, 1999).

Communication is a multi-direction flow of information and enables the manager to pass information, gather vital intelligence and engage in external communication with external parties and stakeholders (Smit & Cronje, 1999).

Communication as a managerial task, requires that managers be familiar with technological advances in the communication fields (Pretorius, 2014). Pretorius (2014) further notes that the ability to use and apply technological advances has become a job and personal competence. One such technological advance is the fast pace and commonplace use of electronic mail/email communication as mechanisms for correspondence, which is fast replacing the telephone and conventional postal mail

(Reyneke, 2014). The development of social media and email has changed communication and requires a new skill set, which includes writing, editing, tone selection and formality which conventional face-to-face communication does not require to the same extent (Reyneke, 2014).

Furthermore, technology has transformed the way organisations communicate. Increasingly, non-profit organisations are becoming concerned with creating linkages and flows of information on national and international platforms (Lewis, 2007). Therefore, the astute manager's role is discerning useable knowledge and information in order to advance organisational goals, utilising the right information and communicating it in the most efficient manner to the relevant stakeholders and reviewing the impact of that communication (Pretorius, 2014).

4.5.8 Monitoring and evaluation

With growing controls over donor aid and funding, the quality imperative in organisations is becoming a growing concern. The monitoring task in management is concerned with tracking of information, observing trends, communicating changes and passing relevant data to colleagues, superiors and or subordinates and external stakeholders (Hafford-Letchfield, 2007). Monitoring and evaluation (M&E) refers to a broad range of activities used to assess the performance of an organisation in meeting the needs of diverse stakeholders and can comprise of descriptive reporting, collecting data on implementation of programmes, programmes costs to how well implementation has taken place (Marshall & Suarez, 2014).

There are three distinctive types of M&E, namely: 1) monitoring, 2) formative evaluations, and 3) summative evaluations (Marshall & Suarez, 2014).

- Monitoring: internal measure to track progress and effectiveness of actions. This can be done through simple attendance data for participants, tests to see compliance by implementers to an agreed course of actions or even financial monitoring where the organization tracks actual expenditure vs the budget (Marshall & Suarez, 2014).

- Formative evaluation: this type of evaluation is usually done mid-way through the programme and often concerns itself with feedback from participations with the view of improving programme implementation (Marshall & Suarez, 2014).
- Summative evaluation: denotes the end of a project and timing for a programme evaluation measuring programme outcomes. Summative evaluations have historically been conducted by external evaluators for objectivity (Marshall & Suarez, 2014).

Each of the three present a broad spectrum of management tools, practices and behaviours in order to measure the outcomes needed so that organisations, donors and beneficiaries can make decisions about the efficacy and efficiency of the programmes on offer (Marshall & Suarez, 2014).

Of note, Marshall and Suarez (2014) state that in order for organisations to be able to conduct M&E, they need to have a plan that is being implemented and a theory of action in the form of a logic model, PERT Charts, Logical Frameworks, Theory of Change and Gantt Charts, articulating the intended outcomes, the outputs, the activities that will be done and the input of resources required. Without this strategic plan, organisations may conduct M&E, but it will never provide useful information on whether they are achieving their objectives or not. Therefore, the strategic plan becomes an important roadmap for articulating the direction of the organisation and how it will monitor and evaluate its impact.

Hafford-Letchfield (2007) says that evaluation is the term commonly used to assess the process of performance against the predetermined objectives, whereas, monitoring refers to the regular collection and analysis of data as the activities are implemented. Moreover, at the programmes and project level, monitoring and evaluation take on slightly different roles.

In democratic societies like South Africa, governors (volunteers) on management committees are custodians of public funds and therefore need a fair amount of accountability, transparency as well as managing the delicate balance of being

governed for their actions and omissions by a broad stakeholder base (Scholte, 2004; Wyatt, 2004). Monitoring and evaluation are mechanisms to ensure transparency, accountability and credibility for organisations among their constituents and donors (Scholte, 2004).

Drucker (1986) notes that in business, control by performance (monitoring) and results (evaluation) are obtained in the most efficient and cost-effective manner with maximum profit. Conversely, in the social service organisations, control through costs is possible, but because it is not concerned with the profit margin, this mechanism is not suited to its non-profit mandate.

Weinbach (2003) makes important distinctions between the various forms of evaluations, namely:

- **Needs assessments:** conducted to determine the need, understand the people it affects and determine the best actions available to meet it;
- **Formative/Process evaluations:** are usually performed while project/programmes is underway to assess how well it is being implemented;
- **Summative evaluations/impact evaluations:** are conducted at the end of a programmes/project to review its efficacy and cost effectiveness. This kind of evaluation is primarily concerned with the impact of a programmes.

While many of the management tasks are derived from corporate management, the M&E of Board governance has been significantly under played. The King Report III on South Africa Good Governance (Price Waterhouse Coopers, 2009) provides a framework on Board governance and how to evaluate the performance of corporate Boards based on the job description given to governs which clearly outlines their key performance areas, remuneration and contractually binding. This Code of Good Governance only applies to business currently and therefore has not extended to use in the NPO sector where the majority of people are unremunerated and endeavour governance out of altruistic motives.

Monitoring and evaluation play a significant role in understanding the overall contribution of an organisation's work in the meeting of the specified need by articulating the impact achieved by the organisation.

4.5.9 Public relations and stakeholder management

Every organisation, whether by design or accident, does a degree of public relations and stakeholder management in their communities. Smit and Cronje (1999) say that public relations is primarily concerned with the creation of a favourable image of the organisation, marketing the organisation and forming beneficial relationships for the organisation. Thus, the task of public relationships is a critical part of an organisation as it communicates with the outside world about the mission, vision, activities and image of the organisation.

Daymon and Holloway (2011) describe public relations and marketing communications as being concerned with the intentional persuasive communication whereby communicators and stakeholders are relationally active in creating and constructing meaning in the social world. The authors use public relations and marketing communications to denote the parallel development of these two concepts in brand promotion (Daymon & Holloway, 2011)

Historically, public relations was primarily done by experts skilled in propaganda and was used for political lobbying, damage control by governments and individuals, journalists were instrumental in the dissemination of marketing messages to the public (Greenberg & MacAulay, 2009).

Noteworthy, organisations who initially adapted early to technology by developing websites of their work and sharing, did so as a status symbol with competitors rather than to relationship-build with new and this behaviour has become entrenched in modern day organisations (Davis, 2003).

Additionally, social services by their very purpose are relational organisations operating in the public arena and therefore have relatively high stakeholder engagement (Lewis, 2007). In its engagement, a social service organisation manages

relationships with government, their constituents, donors, and prospective funders, partner organisations and has to balance this with internal communications with staff, management committees and clients (Lewis, 2007).

The advent of technology and social media has transformed the way that public relations is done by offering numerous opportunities for public relations practitioners and laymen to interact with the public through technology platforms such as blogs, Facebook, twitter on computers and mobile phones (Curtis, Edwards, Fraser, Gudelsky, Holmquist, Thornton & Sweetser, 2009). Contrary to popular belief, international non-profits have been early adopters of social media and technology for good; something that has been made easier by the growing coverage of the internet (Greenberg & MacAulay, 2009). This means that anyone with a cell phone or electronic communication device that can connect to the internet and has the power to be a public relations practitioner or spoke person for an organisation, whether deliberate or not. When done correctly, organisations can mobilise support and share their impact stories across the digital community. The risk of the readily available technology, is that sometimes the person(s) responsible for the technology may not use it responsibly and can thus have detrimental effects on the organisation.

4.6 Conclusions

The contribution of volunteers to organisations have largely been quantified in terms of the amount of time given/donated, the cost savings for organisations who would otherwise have had to pay for the labour and time volunteers give. However, the extent to which volunteers and voluntary work promotes and nurtures civic awareness, responsibility and contributes to personal and community development has largely been anecdotal.

The participation of individuals in volunteer work positions, particularly within social service organisations, is a vital part of social production activities and has implications for the human resources management of an organisation.

Furthermore, managers of social service organisations are tasked with performing various tasks, which include: strategic planning, human resource management,

financial management, transformation/change management, project management, fundraising, information, communications and systems management, monitoring and evaluation and public relations and stakeholder management in ensuring that organisations meet their goals and mission, are responsible partners to their stakeholders and ensure organisational sustainability. The extent and role of volunteers in performing these tasks is an area under researched and grossly under-estimated the world over. However, for organisational development; particularly in resource strapped social service organisations, volunteers play a critical role in bolstering capacity for organisations to be able to develop strategic plans, manage human resources, do financial management, oversee transformation and change management, information and communications, project management, fundraising, monitor and evaluate as well as do public relations and communications.

CHAPTER 5 – METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This study empirically explored the management tasks performed by volunteers serving on the management committees of social service non-profit organisations in the Western Cape. The study aimed to understand what the tasks performed by volunteers were and how these were performed in relation to the larger organisational operational functions, moreover, to hear the voices of social service professionals and how they experience the management tasks as performed by volunteers on the management committees of social service non-profit organisations. This research aim was therefore tested empirically through this research study. Neuman (2000) further states that the social sciences and their interpretation of social research often involves the study of people's beliefs, behaviour, interactions, institutions and their environment. Thus, this study is embedded in the social sciences precisely as it aims to explore this human behaviour within a defined social context.

Furthermore, research is a process of scientific enquiry that can take many forms but strives to either answer a research problem by offering insights into the topic (Fouche & Delport, 2011). The research process commences with an identified problem that is to be explored, resolved or arriving at conclusions that satisfy the researcher and peers. This chapter outlines and discusses the research methodology with a focus on the motivation, explanation of the research design and decisions taken procedurally for the purpose of this research. Thus, this chapter is divided into four sections as follows:

- Research design and approach,
- Research Process,
- Research ethics, and
- Limitations of the study

Each section is discussed based on its application to the research study, as well as to elucidate on some of the decisions made in the course of the research process.

Understanding the research process and methodology gave insight to the processes of the study thereby ensuring that the researcher followed ethical guidelines as presented by the Stellenbosch University and that sound scientific methods were employed in conducting the study. Thus, the methodology employed in the research process adequately answer the research questions and aims, which were formulated at the proposal development stage and ultimately forming the blue print for the study process. The aim of this research was to gain an understanding of the nature and scope of the essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs within the context of the South African social development paradigm. The methodological process is laid out in the sections that follow.

5.2 Research design and approach

The research design and approach outline the processes and steps while undertaking the research and has thus informed the decisions that were taken by the researcher. For the purposes of this study, the research design, research approach and research strategy are outlined in this section further expanding on the research process.

For this study, the researcher opted for a qualitative research design that would elicit the rich and nuanced verbal narratives from 30 participants in two research phases from fifteen social service non-profit organisations in the Western Cape.

5.2.1 Research design

Research design is the map for how the research is to be conducted (Mouton, 2001). Babbie and Mouton (2006) note that research design is the planning of scientific inquiry to "find something" out that has, at inception, been clearly defined and the best way to find out has been chosen. Thus, scientific inquiry is about making observations, interpreting observations, analysing the observations and drawing conclusions on this the observations (Babbie & Mouton, 2006).

The research employed a qualitative research approach in order to explore and describe the nature and scope of essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of social service non-profit organisations (NPOs). In order to ascertain the answers and rich data of the research questions, an

explorative and descriptive research design was adopted. The section below details the application of this research design.

5.2.2 Research approach

Roller and Lavrakas (2015), that qualitative research embraces the complexities of human thought and behaviour and the skilled researcher's task is to acknowledge and accept that people's experiences and thoughts are not the product of any one thing but rather a collection of lived experiences. Therefore, research approach can be defined as the framework that directs the research by outlining the plan for how data will be collected and analysed (Creswell, 2003).

An exploratory and descriptive research design was the most appropriate as it allowed for the in-depth exploration of a particular issue instead of providing wide information on the topic. Babbie and Mouton (2006) state that exploratory research studies allow researchers the flexibility to probe the lived experiences and perceptions of people in their natural environments. Secondly, exploratory research studies focus on areas that have not been studied, in which the researcher wants to develop initial ideas and/or to focus the research question (Babbie & Mouton, 2006; Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2008); such as attempting to gain an in-depth understanding of the nature and scope of essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of social service NPOs, which is a topical area with a dearth of literature and empirical study.

5.2.3 Research strategy: face-to-face interviews

A qualitative research method was used to elicit descriptive and rich data that told the stories of participants in their own voices and language to give insights into their perceptions and experiences (De Vos, 2005; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). Conducting in-depth face-to-face interviews provided the researcher with an opportunity to focus the conversation with participants so as to elicit rich data for analysis.

5.3 Research process

5.3.1 Selecting a researchable topic

Fouche and Delport (2005a) state that identifying a researchable is done by identifying practises and searching the literature to see what has been already researched, where the gaps are and what is possible. This literature scan allows the researcher to form initial ideas about what the research goal/aim could be, identify the units of study and the meaningful theoretical perspectives to follow (Fouche & Delport, 2005a). Moreover, the research question must be identified and can be the main goal simply stated as a question (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

In this study, the research question emerged from a gap in literature, particularly within the South African context, of the nature and scope of essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of social services organisations. Chapter 3 elucidates the body of knowledge on volunteers globally and locally, and supports the notion that there are gaps in the understanding of this key resource within social service organisations, particularly as it relates to social work management as a field of study and practice.

5.3.2 Literature study

The literature study of any research is the comprehensive study of the existing body of knowledge or literature on the topic of interest in order to get a solid understanding, prevailing arguments for and against and areas of understudy (Fouche, 2005). Creswell (2003) further notes that immersion in the literature enriches the researcher's understanding and helps to clarify and crystalize the research question. In keeping with research tradition, this research conducted a desk review of existing literature on the broad topic, this led to a deductive approach in the research problem understanding and formulation.

The researcher studied relevant legislation pertaining to the social services and NPO fields. This was done through reading academic journal articles, books, government gazettes and civic society policy briefs to try and get a comprehensive picture of social service organisations globally and in the South Africa, existing literature on

demographics of volunteers on management committees.

An in-depth study and engagement with the international and local literature was synthesises and forms chapters 2 through to 4 on the various aspects of the topic. Moreover, South African legislation, policies and frameworks were analysed in order to provide the backdrop of the legal and regulatory environment in which social service organisations operate, the environment in which volunteers perform their management tasks and the relational context between civil society, government and corporates in South Africa.

From the literature, emergent questions were formed to provide the basis of the overall research question and sub questions for the empirical study. Moreover, the formulation of the research questions then informed the research design that would allow the researcher to answer the research questions.

5.3.3 Developing the research instrument

The researcher used a deductive approach to develop the research instrument (interview schedules) used for the face-to-face interviews. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) define a deductive approach as one that is embedded in theory to develop a hypothesis and emergent questions. The exploratory semi-structured face-to-face interviews aided the researcher to probe, engage, test, and develop initial ideas on the essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of social service organisations. Furthermore, to ensure that the research instrument was reliable, the same instrument was used for all fifteen interviews with volunteers on the management committees of social service organisations.

A second instrument was developed to gather data from the fifteen social service professionals and similarly, reliability was ensured through the repeated use of the same instrument with the key participants.

The research gathered rich narrative data through face-to-face interviews in order to be able to probe, describe and explore the stories of volunteers and social service staff from social service organisations. Therefore, an exploratory and descriptive design

using semi-structured individual face-to-face interviews was most appropriate for providing rich data on the social phenomenon and allowed participants to express their perceptions and experiences in their own language (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2005).

5.3.4 Population and Sampling

Sampling is taking any portion of a population or universe as representatives of the population and is representative of the population under investigation (Kerlinger 1986; Strydom, 2005). The use of the term sample in social science research always implied the existence of a larger population or universe from which a smaller section is drawn (Gravetter & Forzano, 2003). Therefore, a sample is made up of elements of the larger population who are then included in the research in order to make inferences or gain an understanding of the larger population (Strydom, 2005a).

Babbie and Mouton (2005) further elaborate and state that sampling is the process of selecting observations through some rigorous method either probability or non-probability methods. Probability is a precise science of selecting the elements based on a formula whereas nonprobability sampling relies on the researcher's knowledge, available population and then selecting the most appropriate representative for inclusion in the research.

This research used non-probability purposive sampling at both phases to select the geographical area, the fifteen (15) non-profit organisations, the fifteen (15) volunteers on management committees and the fifteen social service professionals. The sections below elaborate on the sampling techniques employed by the research and the rational for each.

5.3.4.1 Selecting the participating organisation

In the selection of participating organisations, the researcher selected 15 non-profit organisations from the Department of Social Development online database (www.npo.gov.za) and refining the search using the following criteria:

- Based in the Western Cape,

- Working in social welfare,
- Serving children or youth

This search returned over 1000 organisations, this had to be whittled down further and therefore a second layer of geographical radius of 30 kms from the researcher's place of residence 46 came up. From these 46 organisations, the researcher scouted their websites to see whether the organisations would fit the second layer of sampling which included the employment of a social service professional as part of the team, have existed for more than 2 years in existence. Twenty-two organisations were contacted via phone to participate in the study, only 16 agreed to be included. Due to organisational commitments, unavailability of volunteers or staff during the field work period or just unwilling to be a study site were some of the reasons organisations gave for not being included in the study.

Of the sixteen that agreed to participate in the study, a letter was sent to the Director, volunteer and social service professional to inform them of the study protocols, a date, time and venue were selected for the interview and the process was followed for each organisation included. The sixteenth NPO was for the pilot study leaving the actual organisations included in the study at fifteen.

5.3.4.2 Selecting the participating participants

This research used non-probability purposive sampling at both phases to select the geographical area, the fifteen (15) non-profit organisations, the fifteen (15) volunteers on management committees and the fifteen (15) professional staff to participate in the two phases of the research. Sampling is defined as the "selection of elements from the study population to be included in the study" (Strydom, 2005a:194). Purposive sampling allowed the researcher to select organisations that met the sampling criteria as outlined in the section below, and thus only select participants who provided the most relevant data for the study. Participants were chosen because they represented the sample group and possess the characteristics, opinions, ideas, knowledge and experiences about the subject of the research (Babbie & Mouton, 2005; Welman et al., 2008).

Furthermore, each phase of the research had a specific target group and criteria. Participants in Phase one were selected from fifteen (15) different social service organisations non-profit working in the Western Cape, and within each organisation, one (1) volunteer serving on a management committee was interviewed for approximately 45 minutes. Organisations were selected through a comprehensive grantee database that the researcher was able to access from a donor website as well as the Department of Social Development's online NPO database.

The second phase comprised of fifteen (15) social service professional staff members who are affected by the management of volunteers in the first phase. These professionals were included for their insights into the effects of the tasks performed by the volunteers on management committees. Semi-structured interviews were used to capture the language and terminology used by volunteers and staff as they shared their experiences. Semi-structured face-to-face interviews were used due to their flexibility for deep probing on specific areas of the conversation, and for generating rich data. Semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions are described as conversations "organised around particular areas of interest, while allowing considerable flexibility, scope and depth" for exploration (Greeff, 2005:292).

5.3.5 Pilot study

Prior to embarking on the data collection, it is important to test the data collection instruments with real world sample populations in order to adapt and optimise the research instrument. This process is called piloting or the pilot study. Strydom (2005a) notes that it is necessary to conduct a pilot study before embarking on a large-scale interview process. The pilot study is an opportunity for the researcher to adapt the research instrument in order to make it optimally effective in obtaining the required data (Bless *et al*., 2006). In this regard, the researcher undertook a pilot study with two participants in order to determine the validity and reliability of the data collection instrument, as suggested by Rubin and Babbie (2007) and Creswell (2014). The pilot study interviews were conducted face to face as though they were real interviews in the data collection process. The researcher ensured that the ethical aspects were clearly explained and that the participants signed the consent form (Annexure 1). The

semi-structured questionnaires were answered with relative ease, and the participants' responses were insightful and meaningful. This meant that is was not necessary for the questionnaire to be changed. Furthermore, as the same semi-structured interview schedule was used for both phases of the research, barring a few minor changes, it was not necessary to do a pilot study for each phase, as the main questions pertaining to the essential professional competencies of social services were the same. Once the pilot study had been finalised, the interviews could progress.

5.3.6 Data gathering (conducting the interviews)

The research was conducted in two phases as follows:

Phase one: The first phase explored the profiles, perceptions and experiences of volunteers on management committees of different social service NPOs, in an effort to provide a rich description of the nature and scope of the essential management tasks they perform and how these tasks are performed. The NPOs were demarcated to social service organisations as defined by the International Classification of Non-profit Organisations (DSD 2012); which are primarily concerned with services such as family welfare, child protection, counselling and community work, and which fall within the social work remit and social development paradigm.

Phase two: The second phase explored the experiences of paid social service professionals employed by the demarcated NPOs and who were affected by the managerial tasks performed by the volunteers in the first phase of the research. This served as an integral part of data verification, in order to gather extended insight into the implications of the management tasks performed by the aforementioned volunteers and to inform recommendations for empowerment of volunteers. Due to the nature of the research phases, two different interview schedules were developed for each of the phases of data collection. This tailored approach to the schedules allowed for qualitative data to be collected, allowed for data verification and analysis of the data collected and thus enriching the results of the study.

Moreover, the research followed deductive and inductive research approaches (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). In formulating the literature study, the researcher used

a deductive research approach to develop the interview schedules for the data collection which also provided insight into the development of themes for the second phase of the research. In addition, an inductive approach was used to interpret the research findings, part of which, are presented in this paper.

All interviews were captured using a voice (audio) recorder, with the permission of the respondent, the data was then transcribed into interview transcripts.

5.3.7 Data analysis and interpretation

The research design being qualitative and explorative in nature produced rich qualitative data that was recorded using a voice recorder, transcribed prior to being organised and analysed (De Vos, 2005). The researcher developed an analytical structure to make meaning of the data through a process of critical reflection, seeking explanations, making linkages and contemplating reasons for actions by coding the data, generating categories, themes and subthemes (De Vos, 2005; Creswell, 2003).

From the transcribed data, the researcher embarked on the analysis process by grouping common themes and subthemes as developed inductively from the narratives and literature. The categories were deductively constructed and based on the essential management tasks as identified through the literature review. Thus, the categories also shaped the themes and subthemes that emerged. The data was presented as findings which were then compared to the literature from the Literature Chapters 2 to 4 of this study report.

The narratives selected as excepts in the presentation of empirical data were the most “rich” and descriptive in the explanation of the management tasks as performed by volunteers and their impact on social service professionals. Thus, the most representative, based on content and response to the questions, were included for illustration in chapter six.

In the process of manual transcription to text and presentation of the data, the excerpts were denaturalised to remove any habitual speech, non-verbal signs and any other emotive body language by the participant.

A denaturalized approach (Oliver, Serovich & Mason, 2005) is the focus on the content provided by participants rather than how it was said. In view of this, pauses, stutters, silence, involuntary actions and repetition of words that seem habitual were all removed during transcription. Grammar was corrected where needed to give a clearer understanding of the information provided by the participants. The denaturalization was done with the utmost care and caution to avoid changing the meanings and interpretations that participants gave to their situations.

5.3.8 Data verification

In social research, data verification contributes to the trustworthiness of the research findings through empirical means to satisfy the measurement tool used and the topic explored (Creswell, 2003). Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that qualitative research can be evaluated on the following criteria for trustworthiness:

- Credibility – the confidence in the truthfulness of the findings
- Transferability- showing that the findings can be applied in other contexts outside of merely the study contexts,
- Dependability- if the study is repeated, the findings will be consistent
- Confirmability- that there is some neutrality in the respondent's answers and are not completely biased by the researcher's interest or motivation

These aforementioned concepts were applied to the context of the study below.

5.3.8.1 Credibility

De Vos (2005) notes that credibility in qualitative research is to demonstrate that the research was conducted in a manner that is the subject is accurately identified, described and showing the complexities of the issues. The researcher needs to determine the boundaries or parameters of the research and state them from the onset and how this impact the findings (De Vos, 2005; Babbie & Mouton, 2006).

The chapters 1 to 4 outline the theoretical frameworks employed in the study, synthesising the literature in the three literature reviews, discussing in detail the legal

frameworks, theories and focusing on best practice models to illuminate the topic at hand. Moreover, the research design and methodology used scientific approaches and best practice in social science research which further strengthened the case and academic rigour of the study. The empirical study's data collection, analysis, interpretation and presented, as described in sections 1.7 to 1.10 above, were analysed using existing literature to substantiate or counter using the literature reviews.

In the conducting of the empirical study, ethical clearance was obtained, strict ethical codes were adhered to and the researcher has expounded on the limitations of the study and therefore minimising the misinterpretation of findings of the research. Thus, great lengths have been employed to ensure the validity and credibility of the research.

5.3.8.2 Transferability

De Vos (2005) says that transferability is burden or demonstrating that one set of findings may be applicable to another context within the defined study parameters. Alternatively stated, transferability concerns itself with the ability to generalise the findings from one setting to another. Triangulating multiple sources of data enhance the generalisability of the research findings (De Vos, 2005; Roller & Lavrakas, 2015).

This research study concerned itself with the rich descriptions and narratives from participants, contextual descriptions and methodological outlines of the study to ensure replication can be undertaken should the need arise. Furthermore, the literature review synthesised multitudes of data from a range of sources and this was funnelled down to clarify and describe the main concepts to be explored in the study such as volunteerism in the social service sector, essential management tasks as performed in social service non-profit organisations and the legal frameworks that social service non-profit organisations operate in in South Africa. The empirical study then explored these volumes of information, the data gathered was then represented within this literature review context.

5.3.8.3 Dependability

Dependability is the study's ability to be replicated in similar contexts and produce similar results (De Vos, 2005). In the replication of the study, the data should be similar, despite changing social context and phenomenon being researched (De Vos, 2005). The research was conducted in two separate phases and within very short time periods; this was to minimise the changing contextual environment and mitigate for any substantial time lapses that may impact the results of the study. This was particularly important as the study emerged during policy reviews of the non-profit sector in South Africa and the threat of this process re-emerging was highly likely with the uncertain political landscape. Thus, for the purpose of this study, the data collection instruments were dependable and if applied in similar contexts could produce similar results.

5.3.8.4 Confirmability

Confirmability asks whether the findings of the research can be confirmed by another researcher should the need arise. Thus, the findings of the research should be derived from the data and not the inherent ideas and thoughts of the researcher. Confirmability is ensured by sharing narratives verbatim, as presented in Chapter 6 of this report, from the study participants to support the researcher's objective arguments, conclusions and recommendations. Furthermore, the second phase of the research served as data verification for phase one by ensuring that the same themes were kept, testing for corroboration or not of information shared in phase one. Moreover, the literature review added a rich layer and foundation upon which to analyse the findings as shared by the study participants.

Credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability contribute to the reliability and validity of the research by verifying and checking that the research process was sound, carried out in a systematic manner and verified through data triangulation.

5.4 Research ethics

Conducting research poses a number of ethical issues which need to be addressed when dealing with human participants. Ethics in research are defined as "a set of

moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, is subsequently widely accepted and which offers guidelines and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and participants, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students" (Strydom, 2005a:57; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). This section looks at the ethical guidelines as followed in this research study.

5.4.1 Ethical guidelines

Ethical guidelines and considerations are an important part of social research, particularly as it concerns itself with study human behaviour in the social environment. Therefore, the researcher should consider and follow particular research protocols and ethical guidelines. This research took into consideration voluntary participation, deception of subjects, informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity and voluntary participation as outlined in Creswell (2003), release of findings, action and competence of the researcher. Further to these main ethical considerations, the researcher obtained ethical clearance from Stellenbosch University Departmental Ethical Screening Committee (DESC) (see Annexure 7) for conducting research with humans. Prior to each interview, the researcher explained the ethical consideration of the study and asked participants if they consented. Participants indicated their consent by signing the written consent form (Annexure 2), which were filed and kept in a locked cabinet in the researcher's home office to maintain confidentiality of the information.

5.4.1.1 Voluntary participation

Informed consent or voluntary participation is the provision of adequate information to study participants in order for them to make informed decisions about participation, ensure that there is no coercion into the research participation and respects participants right to self-determination (Strydom, 2005b).

The researcher approached all NPOs, volunteers and social service professionals personally, requested for their inclusion in the study and explained the study protocols to all the individuals concerned. Appendix A was emailed or dropped off in

person by the researcher as part of the respondent selections and participants were provided with the opportunity to ask questions prior to the interview. Then at the commencement of each interview, the researcher again explained the main ethical considerations and asked participants to 'opt-in' by signing the Informed Consent form. This was done to ensure full disclosure and gain voluntary participation.

5.4.1.2 Deception of subjects/participants

The deception of participants is the intentional misrepresentation of information/facts, or withholding of information, in order to exploit the participants for the researcher's own gain (Strydom, 2005b; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). In this study, participants were given honest and clear information about the study so as to maintain this ethical consideration.

5.4.1.3 Informed consent

Informed consent refers to the participants' ability to make the choice to take part or not take part in the study in light of all the information (Strydom, 2005b; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). The researcher has to give the participants all the information, including the advantages and disadvantages of taking part in the study. Additionally, the researcher has to ensure that the participant is competent to receive and process the information (Strydom, 2005b; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). Both the NPO, and the research participants were given an introductory letter, which included an Informed Consent (see Appendix A) section informing them about the purpose and the ethics of the study. The ethics were explained to participants at the beginning of each interview, after which participants were asked to sign a consent form prior to the start of the interview.

5.4.1.4 Confidentiality/privacy and anonymity

The violation of privacy refers to the intrusion of the researcher/research in some way into the personal life of the participant. This is usually done through a breach of confidentiality or the disclosure of the identity of the participant, which is a breach of anonymity (Strydom, 2005b:61).

Confidentiality is maintained through the non-disclosure of information shared by participants other than in the published report. However, the comments made by the participants may never be linked to the respondent's name or employing organisation thus maintaining anonymity. A coding system was developed to assign volunteers and organisations through a combination of numerical and pseudonyms to identify and differentiate the participants, organisations, programmes and schools. For example, the first NGO was assigned the number 1 and the volunteer on the management committee was therefore coded as VMC 1 (volunteer on management committee 1), the social service professional (SSP) from organisation 1 was coded as SSP 1; the same was repeated with the subsequent organisations and participants with the numerical values increasing up to the number fifteen for each respondent type. This was a deliberate effort to ensure that anonymity was kept but that volunteers and social service professional from the same organisation's narratives could be viewed both in relation to each other but as well as other participants in the respective phases of the study.

5.4.1.5 Release of findings

Strydom (2005b) says the findings must be released in written form and should be compiled as accurately and objectively as possible. In this study, the findings are written up in this report. The report will be emailed to participating organisations, participants and the Stellenbosch University examination office will make copies available through the library and online repository for the university's thesis publications. Publications that may arise out of this research will be co-authored by the researcher and the supervisor, Professor Lambert Engelbrecht of the Department of Social Work at Stellenbosch University.

5.4.1.6 Actions and competence of researcher

There is an ethical obligation of researchers and their assistants to ensure that they are competent and have the necessary skills to undertake the research (Strydom, 2005b; Babbie & Mouton, 2006).

The researcher has a background in social work education, training and practice,

worked extensively for a research organisation and has academic research skills from her studies as a postgraduate student at the University of Cape Town. Thus, the researcher was sufficiently skilled to undertake the research and uphold ethical considerations. Moreover, as a register social worker, the researcher is guided by the SACSSP, code of conduct.

5.4.2 Personal reflections

De Vos (2005) describes reflexivity as one's ability to formulate an integrated understanding of one's own cognitive world, especially understanding one's influence or role in a set of human relations. This notion of reflexivity is very important in research as there are biases and values that individuals bring into the research process. The researcher had to suspend her experiences to ensure that data collected was a true reflection of participants' experiences.

As a researcher, it is important to suspend one's own biases and values about the research content and the research participants. It is also important to be aware of one's own self-interest in the research as this may influence the interpretation and analysis of data and the research findings. Manipulating the research findings or misinterpreting the findings of the research is unethical. Throughout the research process, the researcher attempted to remain neutral and impartial and used the research supervisor as a sounding board for neutrality. The research supervisor was a source of reflection on core issues about the data gathering process, analysis and reporting. These mechanisms aided in controlling for researcher bias and unwarranted distortions of data due to the researcher's own value systems, experiences and perceptions.

Lastly, the researcher has extensive experience in the non-profit sector from a career that spans over a decade, she did not have any professional or personal relationships with respondents outside the study. The researcher's prior knowledge and experience was helpful in knowing where to look for important information as pertains to the NPO sector but extra caution was taken to be ethically sound and reflexive in approaching the research participants, organisations and process of the study.

5.4.3 Limitations of the study

The qualitative research design, similar to other research designs, is open to levels of bias and presents various limitations due to the nature of the methods often employed (Delport & De Vos, 2005). Some of the biases come from the participants, the researcher or both through the data capturing and the data analysis process.

The study used a qualitative research design and relied heavily on the subjective meanings given to situations and experiences by participants; the study was thus highly biased in that regard. However, due to the nature of the information that was required, this was the best approach to use in order to obtain rich data from volunteers and social service professionals on their experiences of management tasks in social service organisations. The qualitative approach allowed the researcher to probe during the interviews, explore some areas in more detail and gave participants the freedom to express themselves in their own colourful and rich language.

There are many advantages to face-to-face interviewing; however, the method also has limitations. Greeff (2005) outlines some of the limitations as follows:

- It is time consuming.
- Due to large amounts of data collected, interpretation can be difficult and is highly reliant on the expertise of the researcher.

Although the face-to-face interview approach has some limitations, it was the best way to approach the interviews because of its flexibility for the participant to give uncategorized answers and for the researcher to be able to probe and clarify questions and aspects of the study during the interview.

The researcher had previous experience with interviewing and data analysis in qualitative research. This practical experience assisted to counter some of the limitations presented in the data gathering and analysis process.

The researchers' previous experience with qualitative data gathering and analysis meant that she was able to manage the data analysis process. However, there are

limitations to the data analysis process that was followed.

The use of themes and categories opens up the possibility of some information being overlooked, thus possibly resulting in crucial information being left out. The objectivity and experience of the research supervisor was a source of control for this possible limitation.

5.4.3.1 Emerging field and scarce literature

In the course of the literature review and development of the literature chapters, revealed major gaps in the literature on volunteers serving on the management committees of social service organisations, particularly in the South African context. Furthermore, there exists a body of knowledge on the corporate governance of companies but little is known in the non-profit field, especially in South Africa with its unique context and history, and there has been little segregation between volunteers who implement programmes and those that are in governance and have fiduciary responsibilities to social service non-profit organisations.

In the search, there was an over subscription of international literature in business management from international authors but little is known about the management in social services and the social work profession. The South African research by Engelbrecht (2014, 2015, 2016), Chait, Ryan and Taylor (2004) and Inyathelo (2014) was prominent but also had gaps and the limitations as the international literature which is that volunteers on management committees managing social service organisations.

5.4.3.2 Face-to-face interviews

The data collection tool used in this study was a semi-structured interview schedule. The interview schedule served as a guide in directing the conversation. With hindsight, the main limitation of the interview schedule was that at times, questions included were not always applicable to the different organisations and schools of thought. However, quick thinking and flexibility on the part of the researcher countered this limitation. Where research participants were not able to answer questions, the researcher moved on and focused on areas where they were able to provide

information.

5.4.3.3 Use of audio recorder

The use of a digital voice recorder freed up the researcher to observe and document the non-verbal communication of the participant. However, the use of a digital voice recorder may have been a distraction to the respondent. In an attempt to place the respondent at ease with the use of the digital voice recorder, the need for the digital recorder to capture the responses as accurately as possible was explained at the start of the interview and the recorder was placed off centre on a table so that it was not an immediate distraction within sight.

5.4.3.4 Sample size and research site

In probability sampling, one can often control for some of the potential biases and sampling errors. However, in non-probability sampling, the sampling error is high and most often reliant on the judgement of the researcher (Babbie & Mouton, 2006). The use of non-probability purposive sampling in this study did not give an equal opportunity for potential participants to be selected. Thus, the results cannot be generalised to the larger population of social service non-profit organisations; the results will only serve to add value to the reservoir of knowledge in the field of NPO management and the social service sector.

The reliance on two participants from each of the fifteen organisations, also poses some biases as it focuses on the subjective views of only a few participants and not the organisation as a whole. However, their contributions have provided insight into the management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs and how they impact the social service profession.

5.5 Conclusions

This chapter explored the methodology of the research by detailing the motivation for the study, the research design and approach and decisions taken procedurally for the purpose of this research. It further outlined the research process for data collection and analysing the qualitative data collected, the limitations to the study as well as the

research ethics that the researcher followed. The following chapter focusses on the findings of the empirical study, interpretation and presentation of the data.

CHAPTER 6 - EMPIRICAL FINDINGS ON THE ESSENTIAL MANAGEMENT TASKS PERFORMED BY VOLUNTEERS ON MANAGEMENT COMMITEES OF NPOS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an account of the empirical findings from the data collection of the study. As outlined in Chapter 5 detailing the study's methodology, the study was a qualitative research design using exploratory and descriptive research approaches to through qualitative semi-structured interviews to elicit rich data from participants. Data collection was done in two phases, with each phase having its own interview schedules (see Annexures 5 and 6). The total sample size was 30 interviews with fifteen participants for each phase of the study, selected from fifteen social service non-profit organisations. Table 6.1. below visually represents the summation of the research findings.

Table 6.1: Study Phases

Phase	Participants	Code	Number of participants	Data collection method
1	Volunteers on management committees	VMC	15	Semi-structured interviews
2	Social Service Professionals	SSP	15	Semi-structured interviews

In the sampling of the organisations for inclusion, fifteen organisations working in the social service and registered as non-profit organisations were selected using a data base developed by a funding organisation as well as online search of the Department of Social Development's (DSD) online registration portal for non-profits (www.npo.gov.za). From each social service organisations, a volunteer serving on the management committee of the organisation and a social service professional were included which resulted in two participants from each organisation. Volunteers on management committees of social service organisations and the social service

professionals working in those organisations were interviewed using separate interview schedules for each of the participants as can be found in the Annexures 5 and 6.

This chapter discusses the gathered data in relation to the literature review chapters 2, 3 and 4 as a framework to understand and analyse the empirical study findings. The data offered in this chapter is presented in line with the essential management tasks as outlined in the interview schedules as a convenient framework for analysis, grouping themes and categories accordingly and to answer the initial research question. Thus, the exposition of the study's empirical findings is presented as follows:

- A profile of the participating organisations
- Presentation and analysis of the biographical data and motivation of volunteers serving on management committees
- Discussion of emergent themes, categories and subcategories juxtaposed with literature review and segregated according to the two phases (volunteers and social service professions)
- Representation of verbatim narratives from participants

While the study was conducted in two phases, the analysis and interpretation is presented as a meaningful whole that synthesises the management tasks performed by volunteers. Dividing the analysis into two sections would otherwise lend itself to a comparative analysis of the two phases, which the study was not.

Additionally, the analysis draws heavily on some literature sources because they are either contextualised to South Africa, non-profit sector or are social work management focussed in an effort to make the findings relevant to the South African context.

Therefore, this chapter achieves the fourth objective of the study, which was to empirically explore the nature and scope of essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs.

6.2 Profile of participating organisations

In the selection of organisations to participate in the study, the researcher selected using a cross sectional view of organisations serving children, families and communities across the Cape Metropole. Organisations were selected due to their services, namely, organisations needed to serve humans across the lifespan, rendered services through volunteers and staff, employed a social service professionals and had volunteers on the management committees. Furthermore, purposive sampling was used to select the participating social service non-profit organisations and ensured that only organisations registered as outlined in the provisions of the Non-profit Organizations Act (RSA, 1997b) for statutory requirements of organisations. Unregistered organisations were excluded precisely as they were not obliged to comply with any of the statutory requirements as outlined in the NPO Act, had no legal binding obligation to comply with current regulations, moreover, they would have been inaccessible as they were not documented on the DSD database.

The NPOs included needed to meet the following sampling criteria as defined in the Chapter 5 of the study and outlined below:

- the NPO was legally registered with the DSD's Directorate of NPOs and be in possession of an up-to-date NPO registration number;
- the NPO offered social development services to individuals, groups and communities;
- the NPO existed for at least two years to allow some maturity and be classified as a voluntary organisation;
- Employed a social service professional (social worker, auxiliary worker, child and youth care worker etc)

The participating organisations and study participants were guaranteed anonymity as the study did not seek to document case studies of organisations but rather to synthesise and document prevailing practises on the performance of management tasks by volunteers, gain insights into the perceptions of volunteers on their role and how they perform management committees and the experiences of social service staff responsible for the implementation of decisions taken by volunteers on the

management committees. Table 6.2 represents the profiles of the participating organisations that were included in the study.

Table 6.2: Profile of the participating organisations

NPO	Core services	Code
1	Residential care for orphans and vulnerable children, women and families. Family counselling, adoption and parenting classes.	SSNPO 1 (social service NPO)
2	Education support for primary school children, family counselling and community development.	SSNPO 2
3	Transitional care for children leaving residential care, family reunification, family counselling and education.	SSNPO 3
4	Trauma counselling and grief counselling, youth development and sports.	SSNPO 4
5	Education support and arts programmes for high school learners.	SSNPO 5
6	Residential care, palliative care and emergency child protection services for at risk children and orphans.	SSNPO 6
7	Early childhood development, foster care placement, family counselling and community education.	SSNPO 7
8	Sports for development and residential care for orphans.	SSNPO 8
9	Youth development through education, entrepreneurship and food security programmes.	SSNPO 9
10	Health and education support programmes for youth.	SSNPO 10
11	Gang violence prevention and youth offender integration.	SSNPO 11
12	Youth in conflict with the law rehabilitation and substance	SSNPO 12

	abuse prevention programmes.	
13	Caring for the elderly, food security and education support for orphans.	SSNPO 13
14	Foster care placements, youth empowerment through education and counselling and child protection services.	SSNPO 14
15	Sexual violence prevention programmes, counselling for women and girls.	SSNPO 15

6.2.1 Years in the role

In profiling the volunteers, the researcher included questions on the number of years in the role, on average, volunteers had occupied the position on the management committees of a period in excess of two years. The shortest time served on the management committee was 2 years and the longest was 21 years. The Table 6.3 column 5 clearly illustrates the number differentials in terms of years that volunteers have served on the management committee of social service organisations. The same was in effect for social service professionals, although the longest serving was 21 years. This is of significance as it sheds some light on the tasks that volunteers perform relative to time served on management committees. For example, the findings below suggest that the longer a volunteer serves on a management committee the more clearly defined the role and tasks performed and the opposite is true for organisations who have not had the benefit of time and longevity. This is consistent with literature in Chapters 2 and 3 of this report on volunteers which states that new volunteers tend to be highly motivated, take on more tasks and have a higher rate of involvement as they are the inspired first followers; this motivation wanes with time and new people joining the team (Dwyer et al., 2013).

6.2.2 Highest academic qualification

Apart from the two community members with Matric, the volunteers were relatively educated with a higher education qualification. In fact, three of the volunteers had postgraduate degrees at Masters level, albeit, none of it in management or social

work. Furthermore, it indicates that having a number of years in a position or postgraduate qualification as a social worker does not guarantee one upward career mobility to the level of management.

This is consistent with findings in literature that points to the slow transformation of teaching and training within higher education, the slow changing culture of social work supervision which has therefore laid the fertile ground for socials service management to be predominantly white, male and by people who are not even trained in the social work profession yet manage social workers and the social service organisations (Gray & Mazibuko, 2002; Patel, 2005; Patel, 2008).

6.2.3 Race and gender distribution

In relation to gender, only 6 out of the 15 volunteers were female indicating a gender bias towards men on the management committees, this is supported by Patel (2009) who notes that management of the social service professions has largely been a male enterprise with women being oversubscribed in frontline social work rather than management. This is supported by South African evidence as presented by De Jager (2014) and reinforcing Patel's (2009) notion that in the social services that historically, volunteer leadership on the Boards of charity or social service organisations has historically been the enterprise of volunteer community leaders, particularly in women's organisations, that played a key role in the early years of social services (Patel, 2009; De Jager, 2014).

Moreover, a third (five participants) of the social service professionals were males while the other two (ten participants) thirds were female. Furthermore, there was an over representation of black and coloured professionals as opposed to the composition of the volunteers above.

When applying race as a lens of analysis, 8 out of 15 of the participants were white (predominately white males), this is just over half of the study sample for the volunteers. This too is found in scholarship that management roles favour men and women do not enjoy the upward mobility, regardless of education attainment, as previously stated.

6.2.4 Employment status

All of the volunteers included in the research were employed, except for one retired accountant and were therefore volunteering on the management committee in addition to their employment duties. This too is consistent with the findings of Samuel, Wolf and Schilling (2013) that note an increase in corporate volunteering offered to NPOs as part of community engagement or for representatives of corporates to gain opportunities to spread their work and vision to a wider public by offering highly skilled individuals in return for tax leverages, public relations and marketing credits that boost corporate identity. Yet, in South Africa, employment data indicates women contribute about 60% of the time volunteered in frontline service delivery and men only 35% but rather at management levels of the organisations (StatsSA, 2011). All social service professionals were employed as staff of the organisation.

6.2.5 Biographical data of research participants

The researcher made initial contact with organisations for them to be included in the study, the organisational contact person (usually the manager or director) then recommended the volunteer for inclusion in the study based on their understanding of the aim of the research and the management role that the volunteer played in the organisation. Thus, the Table 6.3 and Table 6.4 below outlines the demographic data of the volunteers and social service professionals who were interviewed in the study as related to organisations as outlined in Table 6.2 above.

Table 6.3: Biographical data on volunteers

Code	Age	Race	Sex	Years in position	Qualification	Position
VMC 1	50	White	Female	5	BA in Social work	Founder and acting chairperson
VMC 2	25	Black	Male	5	BA Education	Founder and acting chairperson

VMC 3	62	White	Male	10	BA in Sociology and Geography	Chairperson
VMC 4	33	White	Male	4	Wine making	Chairperson
VMC 5	34	Black	Male	2	Film and media studies	Volunteer
VMC 6	67	Black	Female	21	Matric	Board member
VMC 7	58	White	Female	3	BA Social work	Acting Chairperson
VMC 8	28	Coloured	Female	4	Masters in Clinical Psychology	Director and Volunteer
VMC 9	56	White	Male	4	Diploma in Construction Studies	Chairperson
VMC 10	78	White	Male	7	Chartered Accountant (Retired)	Treasurer
VMC 11	26	Black	Male	3	Matric	Secretary
VMC 12	62	White	Male	14	Bachelor of education	Chairperson
VMC 13	58	White	Female	4	Masters in Social Development	Treasurer
VMC 14	23	Black	Male	2	Diploma in Public Administration	Chairperson
VMC 15	40	Black	Female	2	MPhil Education	Chairperson

Table 6.4: Biographical data of social service professionals

Code	Age	Race	Sex	Years in position	Qualification	Employment status/position
SSP 1	32	Black	Female	3	BSocSc Social Work	Social Worker
SSP 2	27	Black	Male	1	Grade 12 and studying towards a Child and Youth Care qualification	Programmes Coordinator
SSP 3	41	White	Female	6	Masters in Psychology and theology	Operations manager
SSP 4	36	Coloured	Female	18 months	Psychology	Supervisor
SSP 5	31	Black	Female	2	Honours in development studies	Director/founder
SSP 6	55	Black	Female	21	MBA	Director
SSP 7	41	Coloured	Female	3	BA Social work	Social Work Manager
SSP 8	31	Black	Male	2	Sports Management and auxiliary social worker	Youth counsellor
SSP 9	27	Coloured	Female	5	Social worker	Social work supervisor
SSP 10	58	White	Female	5	Social worker	Director
SSP 11	26	Black	Male	3	Matric	Director
SSP 12	31	Black	Male	4	Masters in International Children's law	Social worker supervisor
SSP 13	51	Black	Female	8	National Diploma in Child and Youth Care work (Isibindi)	Managing Director

SSP 14	28	Black	Male	1	Child and youth care worker	Child care worker
SSP 15	31	Female	Black	4	Masters in Social Work	Director

6.3 Emerging literature themes and data categories

The essential tasks as defined in the study were synthesised through an inductive process while compiling the literature review, the researcher then developed interview schedules to probe the in-depth descriptions of the management tasks performed by volunteers on the management committees of social service organisations. The interview schedules were then tested in the pilot study with only minor grammatical changes made to the interview schedules. During the pilot phase, the first of the sixteen-organisation included was used as a pilot interview, both the volunteer and the social service professional were informed of their participation in the pilot as this would enable the researcher to refine and make adjustments to the instruments of the study. In this instance, both the pilot phase participants answered the questions with ease and there was no meaning lost through the misunderstanding of questions or the language used. Consequently, the organisation the pilot organisation was excluded from the overall data analysis as outlined below.

The grouping of these essential management tasks also allowed for the data analysis to be concise. Thus, the data is presented based on the themes that emerged from literature and the categories as emergent from the data set of the study and is tabulated below.

Table 6.5: Exposition of the empirical study: Themes and categories

Literature themes	Data categories
Strategic planning	• Engaging volunteers serving on management committees in Strategic Planning • Organisational sustainability

Human resources management	• Recruitment and Retention • Performance
Financial management	• Financial resources • Asset management
Transformation/change management	• Human change management • Process management
Project management	N/A
Fundraising	• Events driven fundraising • Grant writing/proposal development • Donor management
Information, communications and systems management	N/A
Monitoring and evaluation	• Management committee effectiveness • Programme evaluation
Public relations and stakeholder management	N/A

The emerging themes as deducted from the study findings are: Strategic planning, Human resources management, Financial management, Transformation/change management, Project management, Fundraising, Information, communications and systems management, Monitoring and evaluation, and Public relations and stakeholder management. The data categories are comprised of the tasks and how they are performed and interpreted across the social service organisations by volunteers. These literature themes are further discussed in relation to the experiences of social service professionals' and how they experience volunteers to be performing these tasks as a secondary data verification and triangulation as outlined in the methodology of the study in Chapter 5.

6.3.1 Theme 1: Strategic Planning

Chapter 4 indicates that Strategic Planning in social service organisations is generally

concerned with mission alignment, refining goals and setting the agenda for the organisation so that it can have an impact. In the South African context of organisational development as derived from international definitions, Strategic Planning is defined as the blueprint or plan that maps the organisation's course of action, integrates the organisation's major goals, policies and actions to achieve its objectives by synthesizing a time bound activity plan for all levels of the organisations (Quinn, 1980). Thus, strategic planning is the planned process in which organisations specify their intention for a specified period, how they will get there based on the human and financial resources available to them (Hughes & Wearing, 2007).

6.3.1.1 Data Category: Engaging volunteers serving on management committees in Strategic Planning

Strategic planning is a formulation and realignment of the organisation's mission, vision, goals and defining an action plan for achieving these. Thus, volunteers' joining social service NPOs are drawn to the organisational mission which is in line with the position on volunteer motivation that states that volunteers are engaged in civic engagement as a result of the alignment of the organisational mission with their individual motives largely driven by volunteers' needs to be part of decision-making and contributing to a better society (Snyder & Omoto, 2008).

Furthermore, the external employment status and duration of volunteer's involvement in social service organisations is related to their motivation and how they came to join the organisation. There is extensive scholarship on volunteer motivation all over the world and the key learnings are that volunteers are motivated by personal interest, the congruence of organisational goals with volunteer passion and the perception that the organisation is inherently delivering on its mission which then breeds loyalty (Dwyer et al., 2013; Snyder & Omoto, 2008). A great example of this alignment of values and volunteer motivation can be seen in the statement below by a volunteer:

> *"I was recruited by the founder of the other organisation and I joined because I believe in what the organisation aims to do and has been doing successfully for 10 years. I was involved with [name of organisation committed] from 2003. I had just returned*

> *from the US and was approached by a pair of students to join them on their Board. Then it turned out that they did not have a chair and I said I'd be the chair. That role has been like that for over 5 years. It wasn't as if I was recruited and there was a formal process. It evolved naturally. Since then we have been more strategic about how we bring on new people." VMC 3*

Both the findings and the scholars such as Ellis (2012), Patel, Schmid and Hochfeld, (2012) emphasise the brokering of social capital in mobilising volunteer time and skills within the social services. Therefore, the findings are congruent with prevailing notions of volunteer motivation in social engagement and affirms that volunteers are a critical part of organisations but their motivation for staying has largely got to do with what the organisations aims to do in its mission and what role the volunteers sees themselves playing in the achievement of the organisation mission.

Moreover, in defining this role that volunteers assume, there is value in understanding their interpretation of their understanding of the essential management tasks as pertaining to their roles. One volunteer summarised her understanding of their overall role as a member of the NPO management committee supporting a social service organisation as being:

> *"Essential management tasks are around human resources, general office, finances, record keeping, general governance, governance process such as regular board meetings. Boards are meant to be guiding but sometimes you can't just be guiding, you just have to get in and do it. I often get in to help on HR. there's a thin line between governance and managing. You have to avoid managing where the director has to have every action approved by the board." VMC 3*

The statement made by the volunteer above reinforces the assertion by Bowen (2002) that the non-profit Board or management committee is one of the only forces strategically positioned to support the capacity required to deliver on the organisational mission but has to be discerning in its governance role and leave management to the Director and the organisational management team (Letts, et.al, 1999). The distinction between management and governance is an important one and aptly described by the UNDP (2009) in its comprehensive definition of governance as the highest accountability rung of an organisation and is also the *"mechanisms and*

processes for citizens and groups to articulate their interests, mediate their differences and exercise their legal rights and obligations" as opposed to management which concerns itself with tiered (top management, middle management and lower management) operational tasks that drive the organisation closer to reaching its objectives (Smit & Cronje, 1999).

The separation of powers between the management committee (governance or top management) and the operational team (middle management) is an issue of contention in the South African context and was cited as an area of concern in the findings of the NPO audit as conducted by DSD (2010), which found that the confusion lay in organisations that elect individuals onto decision-making committees and subcommittees that operate as pseudo management committees but do not have the highest level of accountability as enshrined in the NPO Act. Moreover, the clear definition of the hierarchies of power and decision-making is an indication of the level of accountability that exists within an organisation as indicated by Guo (2007) who clearly defines the four typologies of governance in management committees as:

- **Strong, community management committees** which indicates high community representation and management committee's power, providing connections between the committee and community.
- **Weak, community management committees** tend to have high community representation but lack the involvement of the management committees' whose power is then weak over the CEO.
- **Strong, non-community management committees** represent organisations with high management power with diminished community involvement, which may lead to more decisive and greater management control over organizational direction but lacks inclusion and community participation (Guo, 2007).
- **Weak, non-community management committees** have both low community representation and low management committee power, particularly over the CEO (Guo, 2007). This type of governance structure tends to cast doubts about

the governance of an organisation and its capacity to deliver accountable and transparent services.

Striking a balance between the right level of community participation and effective decision-making is a key indicator for empowering approaches for volunteers within organisations, as well as a key consideration when planning governance for community development. Volunteers by their very nature are not governors of organisations and thus require a significant amount of support to execute their roles on the management committees of social service organisations, thus, the developmental approach as outlined in the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997) in South African, becomes much more of a developmental imperative for the empowerment of the countries majority population.

This is further in line with the empowerment theory as outlined by Hardina, Middleton, Montana and Simpson (2007), which emphasises an empowerment approach as being an integral part of volunteer management by involving volunteers in decision-making, upskilling volunteers to be able to perform their managerial tasks over time. Furthermore, because of South Africa's historical background where the large majority of the population was marginalised and denied opportunities for participation, volunteer participation in decision-making becomes a tool for democratising development and empowering the vast majority so they can have agency to be self-determining to improve their communities and their lives.

6.3.1.2 Data Category: Organisational sustainability

Strategic planning as commonly understood is an annual event, however, it is in actual fact planning for organisational sustainability. In thinking or devising a plan, organisations need to have a guiding strategy that will be a blue print for how they intend to achieve their mission and goals, what resources are available and what new resources are needed to take the organisation closer to achieving its goals. Therefore, the strategic planning of an organisation should exceed the routine annual plan as performed by many organisations.

The research found very little to no evidence of strategic planning as a democratic and

participatory process in social service organisations. In the one instance where a volunteer could comment about the process, it was rather in the capacity of governance and oversight rather than participation. The volunteer below describes their role in strategic planning as:

> *"We do keep a close eye on the sustainability of the organisation, but do not get involved in planning." VMC 6*

Contrary to the implied notion of strategic planning as a process of mutual and collaborative involvement by all stakeholders as suggested by Mintzberg (1987), who offer strategy and planning as a conscious planned process that has a pattern, assumes a position and offers perspective of the organisation.

Moreover, Quinn (1980) notes that the planning for strategy is the most important part of organisational survival as it outlines the path of the organisation.

The role of volunteers on the strategic planning of organisations seems to vary across organisations, the spectrum is from very engaged committees in the development of the strategic plan and managing the process to arrive at the plan to be signed off, sometimes reacting to plans already proposed by the management team. On the extreme of the spectrum with some fairly engaged management committees, processes align to the notion of strategic planning as a planned process for change as outlined by Hughes and Wearing's (2007) who propose that management committee conceptualise and plan the approach for which change is to occur in leading the organisation closer to its goals. In this instance, the volunteer's narrative below supports the position as noted by the two aforementioned authors:

> *"We've got a fairly engaged board and a good management team in the director and the operations manager. They produce a proposal for the strategy for the board to have a look at. It is normally at the board meeting or a separate one." VMC 3*

The excerpt above infers a reactive process whereby the operations team draft a plan, the plan is then discussed at a management committee level, the necessary changes are made and it is adopted as part of a committee resolution. Thus, this implies a process where strategic plans are co-created by all the levels of management and delegated to the Director for the implementation. In addition to reactive and co-

created strategic plans as is suggested by Quinn (1980) and Mintzberg (1987), some organisations in the management enterprise delegate responsibilities to managers or a volunteer for the execution of certain mandates. The research findings concur with this additional dimension of segregating the plan and delegating tasks to others to perform as noted in the excerpt by the volunteer below:

> *"The strategy is developed by management committee and there is one person who makes sure it is delivered. I then monitor the implementation of the strategy." VMC5*

Thus, the definition of management as being linked to tasks and activities performed by managers involved in managing an organisation by planning, organising, leading and controlling (Hellriegel et al., 2008) are apt in solidifying and validating that some social service organisations practice management as understood in its global scholarship and classical management theory. It can then be inferred that managers are the people responsible (officially) for ensuring organisations achieve their goals through the performance of the essential management tasks (Hellriegel et al., 2008) as is noted by VMC5 above.

Strategic planning as a process of defining key priorities over time and the allocation of resources and time is an issue that is central to the management committee of organisations as noted by Eadie (1998), however, in some organisations volunteers do not actively participate in the strategic plan but rather monitor the plan as defined by the operational team.

The volunteer quotations above as well as the under representation of the role of strategic planning by the study participants indicate that there is limited consultation with the broader stakeholder community, that participation is reactive once a strategy has been developed and thus volunteers assume an oversight role, that very few organisations actually engage in strategic management processes. These findings are thus in contradiction with prevailing notions of essential management tasks and strategic planning as being the first and foremost important management task as it informs the evolution and substance of subsequent management tasks such as fundraising, human resource management, project management, information and communications, monitoring and evaluation and public relations.

In all the research narratives, but more so in the three above, there was no clear indication of what strategies and tools were employed for developing strategic plans, the focus was rather on representation of key stakeholders and governance oversight of plans developed. One can deduce that the participants may not have been aware of existing tools and strategies utilised in strategic planning as outlined in the literature Chapter 4 or simply did not make the connections in relation to the research questions. Some of these tools and strategies include the use of PERT Charts, Logic models/frameworks, Theory of change or Gantt Charts as originally defined by Drucker (1986) to articulate the sequential nature/steps of how an organisation plans to achieve its objectives and documents its results thereby ensuring organisational sustainability.

The process of strategic planning, as defined by Hughes and Wearing (2007) who say it is a planned approach to change therefore infers a linear and methodological approach underpinning action within organisations. The findings of the research, as evinced by the quotes from VMC3, suggests that social service organisations in planning for sustainability need to be able to respond to the changing social and economic environment in which they operate, however, this response needs to be done in a coordinated and planned manner that takes clients and staff input, funding environment and the management committee input and should define the vision, the goals, objectives and activities of the organisations which will be performed over a defined time (Brody, 1993).

6.3.2 Theme 2: Human resource management

The human resource management of an organisation is the largest component as it includes the recruitment, employment and professional development of the human capital of an organisation. Additionally, Letts, Ryan and Grossman (1999) posit that the human capital in any organisation is its most distinguishable trait and asset, therefore, in the non-profit sector, there is an abundance of this human capital resource through volunteerism.

To understand human resource management in the context of volunteers, one needs to recognise and quantify volunteers as a critical and necessary resource that social

service organisations have as human capital and therefore needs to be managed. Paull and Omari (2015) and De Jager (2014) note that in formal and established organisations, volunteers are recruited and managed by paid staff, usually social service professionals, who assign tasks, provides direction for volunteers, supports the psychosocial needs of volunteers whereas in emerging organisations, there is less structured support because everyone is predominantly a volunteer. This developmental role seems to primarily apply to programmatic related volunteers and does not necessarily extend to volunteers on the management committees of organisations as they are perceived to be at the top management and therefore the echelons of power in relation to the accountability and decision-making structure of the organisation.

6.3.2.1 Data Category: Recruitment and Retention

Organisations need people to survive and meet their objectives. Human resources management concerns itself with the managing of organisational talent or the "people strategy" of an organisation which includes the planning for people, recruitment, performance management, retention and professional development of an organisation's labour force (Letts, Ryan & Grossman, 1999). Therefore, recruitment and retention is the process of identifying people to fill predefined roles as identified in the strategic planning, monitoring their performance, retaining the ones who deliver and counselling non-performers out of an organisation (Anheier, 2005).

Conversely, volunteers on the management committees of social service NPOs, while may be tasked with management tasks in relations to human resources, they themselves represent a challenge in how they are to be managed as a resource to the organisation.

Farnham (2015) and Schuler and Jackson (1987) point to human resources as a planned transitional process where people are brought in strategically to fill key roles over time. The study findings greatly support this process of transitional organisational human resources as the preferred approach in designing and implementing human resource management. In other words, organisations at genesis are solely volunteer based and when funding for salaries is sourced, then volunteers are promoted into

more formal staff positions with contracts and staff, therefore, undergoing preferential employment and creating upward career mobility for those who had initially invested time and skills into the success of the organisation. This is evinced in the except below where this case is illustrated:

> *"We have been fortunate, or unfortunate, so as to not really need an HR department per se. We are small and work with volunteers mainly. The Director is responsible for recruitment, selection and I do the training of all volunteers. The director is also the founder of the organisation, so we didn't recruit her per se. She just happened to be here and when we got money, we formalised the relationship with a contract and financial package." VMC 15*

Thus, in some organisations, volunteers selectively follow human resource processes in some instances but the exception is the norm. This practice of internal promotion of service delivery volunteers into formalised positions is contrary to the existing body of literature that posits that human resources management is a sequential process where there is a recruitment and selection process, employees inherit a clearly defined job description, organisations implement retention plans for staff and there are performance appraisals at appropriate intervals (De Jager, 2014).

All the organisations included in the study did not have a Human Resource Departments as is common in government or corporations and therefore, volunteers and the director of organisations were primarily responsible for this function. The majority of organisations shared the same sentiment by the social service professional below:

> *"The office manager is responsible for the human resource management. He is not a board member. He does this for everyone. I am involved in how new social workers are employed but not anything else." SSP12*

In this regard, the study's findings are contrary to existing literature which speaks to larger organisations with more defined, departments and roles that manage the human capital of an organisations (Smit & Cronje, 1999). Moreover, the role of the volunteers on management committees is silent in this regard with what seems to be a management task left to the middle management team and administration.

6.3.2.2 Data Category: Performance

Farnham (2015) defines a key part of human resource as performance where there is a deliberate and clear monitoring of personnel to ensure the execution of tasks in a timely manner with the efficient use of organisational resources and time. Guest (1987) expands the definition of performance management to include the management of relationships within an organisational structure with clear organisational objectives which can be performed as a specialised group or individually. While both these definitions are comprehensive, their limitation is that they are linked to labour relations and therefore imply a transactional relationship where the employer contracts the skills and services of an individual or group and then compensates the individual or group for work paid. Volunteers on the other hand are not financially remunerated and therefore cannot be held to the same performance standards as employees.

The except below shows that organisations employ a combination of strategies for performing human resource management. These strategies include some tasks being assigned to volunteers while others are assigned to staff; with staff doing routine human resource tasks and the bulk outsourced to external consultants as noted below:

> *"We have various skills on the board. We have some financial skills, with legal financial background, HR stuff comes to me. All that traditional stuff on contracts, performance management, salary levels, evaluation of jobs. We've also got another board member who run a staff development training programmes and they deal with staff issues that need resolving, counsel somebody. We also use another consultant to help with professional development. The organisation is a fairly compassionate organisation. When someone is really performing badly, it is hard to counsel them out of the organisation. We try and sympathise and think of their family and children before firing them. As the board, we sometimes do this to the detriment of the organization." VMC 3*

The excerpt above indicates that volunteers may also be responsible for the performance management of staff and roles are allocated according to skills of volunteers. Volunteers on the management committees of organisations are assigned

roles in their day to day management. The study found that human resource management can be split up into several components and apportioned to various volunteers and the operational team depending on the size of the organisation. These findings are contrary to the work of Smit and Cronje (1999) and other scholars who relegate human resources as a highly specialised field managed by experts in a large department of government or corporations.

The study findings show that in less established community based organisations, the human resources are not an issue as the organisations tend to rely solely on volunteers, therefore, management of human resources is almost non-existent in the traditional sense. The volunteer quoted below shares her experiences of formalising operations where the organisation transitioned from being a volunteer organisation to one with staff members to manage.

> *"So firstly, we only started formalising our operations in 2015. Everyone on the team is voluntary and its harder to implement disciplinary stuff. We allocate some more administrative tasks for those that have been serving long. When it comes to the paid staff, we don't have any in-house policies and we use basic labour laws. I don't have an HR qualification and this is the challenge of the founder and finding yourself multitasking on everything." VMC 5*

In the social services, volunteers represent a free labour force in social service organisations and this labour force can either complement or replace professional support staff (Pryce, Hall & Gooberman-Hill, 2015). This understanding of volunteers as a vital labour force for good within organisations is supported by findings of the research where organisations rely solely on volunteers for a number of years in their existences prior to the employment of staff.

Moreover, the smaller the organisation, the more likely is it to lack a human resources plan, policies and therefore defaults to the bare minimum as proposed by the Department of Labour's guidelines as outlined in Chapter 2 on volunteers. Furthermore, in the South African context where volunteers do not fall neatly into the prescripts of the Labour Relations Act (RSA,1995) or the Basic Conditions of Employment (RSA, 1997c), is it generally harder to transact and performance manage

them when they are not performing. Volunteers, by the very nature, give of their time and skills for free with no contractual obligation but rather a moral obligation which makes performance management harder as is evinced in the excerpt above and supported by Snyder and Omoto (2008) who concur with the obscurity and challenges of managing volunteers where the transactional nature of the relationship is based on moral currency as opposed to financial currency.

Of note, is the last statement made by the volunteer (VMC 5) above where they note that establishing an organisation means that one has to acquire new skills as and when needed to create a multi-skilled "manager".

6.3.3 Theme 3: Financial Management

Financial management as a management task is aptly defined by Weinbach (2003) and De V Smit (2014) who describe financial management as developing budgets, monitoring expenditure and reporting on income versus budget and expenses. This is a prudent definition that has informed accounting practises in the development field, however, Ogliastri, Jager and Prado (2015) note that in the NPO sector, generating resources is not akin to business where there is a direct exchange of product and revenue and can therefore forecast income based on stock or services. NPOs have only their mission and story to sell to funders who invest in the mission of the organisation. Therefore, financial management in the sector is not merely concerned with expenditure and due process but is inextricable from fundraising and generating revenue.

6.3.3.1 Category: Financial resources

The financial management of many social service organisations is a critical management task that has implications for how organisations are able to access future funding. Donors often look at the financial statements of organisations to ascertain the "financial health" of the organisations. Financial management, thus, is a critical management task and in this research, it was highlighted as the management task that enjoyed the most attention from volunteers on management committees, middle management and even lower management as it impacts the overall performance of

an organisation. The management of financial resources was aptly summarised in the words of one of the volunteers:

> *"Without money, there is no organisations. So, we have to take care of it very well" VMC 12*

Moreover, on the management committees of organisations, there may not be clearly defined roles for the other volunteers but the role of the treasurer is often the most defined as it pertains to the financial health of the organisation. The NPO Act (RSA, 1997) stipulates some office bearing roles in the establishment and management of an organisation, these are the chairperson, the treasurer and the secretary. This is in line with the management tasks as outlined below which show that the treasurer is the oversight role when it comes to the organisational finances, budgets are jointly agreed and are used as an internal control and monitoring tool for expenditure and administration of bank accounts as noted in the two excepts below:

> *"The Treasurer would spend a lot of time looking at the financials. Making sure they look correct, advise on additional expenditure on the budget. We look at the budget quite carefully. The Chair and the Treasurer look at the financials and make sure that there is no kind of excessive expenditure on their stuff that is not necessary. One is also involved in the torturous issues around bank accounts, signatories. Unlike a lot of organisations, they outsource a lot of their books to a contractor. That does give a lot of comfort knowing that there is someone else also having a look at that." VMC 3*

The development of budgets, monitoring expenditure and reporting on the spending is in line with traditional financial management practices and in this organisation (Weinbach, 2003; De V Smit, 2014).

Another participant reiterates the focus on financials by saying that the treasurer role was specifically selected for someone with financial management skills and experience:

> *"There is a board member who has many years of experience in financial management and helping NGOs. We met him when we were trying to register the organisation and he helped us and was co-opted onto the board. He looks at our books and we work together to manage the finances." VMC 8*

The findings support the research and recommendations of Wyatt (2004) that indicates that the role of volunteers is the financial oversight of the organisation by tracking key financial metrics such as Cash on hand, Cash-flow projections, Income and expenditures, Relation of actual to planned budgets and Balance of reserves in order to make informed decisions about the organisation's future. Therefore, it logically follows that organisations would require individuals with the financial literacy skills in order to manage this key area of organisational management and governance.

Likewise, the same organisation outsources their management [books] accounts to a contractor who is then responsible for the maintenance of the day to day financial record keeping and the treasurer then gives input and oversight while the larger management committee adopts the recommendations from the volunteer who has been selected and acting in the capacity of treasurer. Noteworthy, is that in some organisations, the treasurer did not necessarily have financial skills but was assigned the role in the segregation of duties. Weinbach (2003), supports the notion that donor funds, simply by the nature of NPOs and their sources of income, add additional burdens on organisations as they tend to come under sever scrutiny and therefore require astuteness in the way those funds are managed.

Linked to this donor oversight, is the type of donors who provide resources to ensure that finances are spent in the manner in which has been agreed with grantees. One organisation did not have their own internal financial management processes or controls and therefore relied on the donor resources/templates developed for grantees to track income against expenditure.

> *"We've got a template that we got from [donor name]. We use it to track our finances, plan our finances and report on it. We do this monthly. All our board members are signatories of the bank account. Everyone has a decision on how we spend money but the spending of the money lies with me. I give petty cash to the staff. We've now got a treasurer because it was a bit unethical for me to approve things that I had spent on." VMC 5*

Further, to donor financial reporting prescripts, is an additional measure of safety by having volunteers on management committees be signatories on the organisational bank account. This is seen as best practice in financial management, moreover, having

more than one person release and sign on payments adds a level of confidence and safety as noted in the VMC 5 quoted above.

The shift of some donors to providing capacity support, particularly in financial management, is in line with the DSD Financial Awards Policy (DSD, 2011) that requires established organisations to provide capacity support to emerging organisations. While the respondent did not clearly stipulate the relationship as being a DSD mandated practice, that particularly donor was building the capacity of the organisation to mitigate risk.

On the other side of the spectrum are organisations that operate with autonomy within existing organisations such as the one noted below:

> *"We are not really an independent organisation, we grew out of [name of organisation omitted] they still manage our finances, HR and stuff. We send an email request for items and they procure them centrally. We are getting more independent but for now, they do it for us." VMC 13*

In the example of the organisation above, the gradual growth of an organisation from one founding organisation into another provides the offspring organisation with organisational capacity without needing to procure some of the managerial tasks and personnel as noted by the volunteer in the excerpt above. Their organisation enjoys the benefits of management tasks performed by another organisation at no fee while they continue with programmes implementation. This kind of relationship is under represented in literature and is a gap needing further scholarship, however, there is evidence to support that in some instances organisations may develop or join an umbrella body that conduits resources, some financial, to member organisations and therefore may manage parts of the financial management of organisations. By its own evidence, DSD (2010) noted that there were umbrella organisations with affiliates who centralised collective infrastructure, reputation and brand presence while operating autonomous "branches" or "satellite" offices but jointly accounted and reported to DSD.

The study also found that in organisations where there was high volunteer involvement operationally, the financial management task was assumed primarily by

the volunteers on the Board and few day-to-day responsibilities were delegated down to an administrator but not to other staff. The social worker below noted that he was not unaware of the financial management as it was primarily determined in the top management of the organisations:

> *"I am aware that the Board is responsible for the overall financial management and the organisation. I am not sure what they are responsible for specifically. But the office administrator is responsible for finance for day to day. I don't want to lie and say I know what is going on in the finance side." SSP12*

The evidence provided by the study findings is that there is agreement that financial management is a good indicator of the ethical and accountable management of organisations which therefore gives good indication for organisational performance (Weinbach, 2003; De V Smit, 2014). Furthermore, like the volunteer above noted, there is an over emphasis on the financial management as a task is verified by the SSP12 above that volunteers are indeed the ones performing this critical role in the organisation regardless of whether smaller parts are partially outsourced and managed by operational staff.

While operationally this model of ultimate accountability residing with volunteers at the management committee level, there is the danger that resources and their management is far removed from the operations and coalface work of the organisation which can cause conflict. Moreover, the management of finances exclusively at management committee level further entrenches bureaucracy in decision-making and allocation of resources. This is particularly dangerous in South Africa where the majority of programmes beneficiaries, staff and even some volunteers on the management committees are disempowered, have experienced systemic inequality and have been marginalised politically, socially and economically and then are not included in the allocation of resources for services directly impacting their lives.

6.3.3.2 Category: Asset management

Linked to the financial management as stipulated in the previous section, asset management is a subset of financial management concerning itself with the

management of the material resources of an organisation and not the finances, albeit related. Asset management is primarily concerned with how organisations manage their material resources, which are then linked to their Balance Sheet (De V Smit, 2014). The study findings indicate that social service professionals were aware of assets of the organisation but were not privy to the management thereof and what role volunteers played in this. The three excerpts elucidate the extent of the SSPs knowledge on the assets.

> *"I don't actually know about the asset management of the organisation. I know that I have a laptop and mobile phone to use. I lock it up in the office when I leave." SSP5*

> *"Most of the goods we have are donated. We've only ever bought laptops. All our funding goes to programmes and salaries. We are a very lean organisation." SSP 14*

> *"I know we have assets like this house that we work from is called [name of organisation] House but I have no idea what the value is or who manages such things. I use the company car and keep a log of the mileage for home visits but that's it." SSP1*

So regardless of whether organisations are lean or have many resources, there is some acknowledgement of there being a process of how these are managed, albeit very ambiguous. Noteworthy, is that volunteers knew more about the asset management process in more detail confirming that they were indeed responsible for these tasks, even if it may be distributed among several people. This is encouraging as it reinforces the stipulations of the NPO Act that says all office bearers within an organisation are fiduciary members of the organisation.

The management of assets is determined by size of the organisation, the location of the organisation and the financial position of the organisation. One of organisations included in the research was head quartered in a co-working space and therefore did not have the capital expenses that one acquires in setting up a fully-fledged operational office with resources. This form of arrangement meant that the staff moved into a fully furnished office, equipped with phone and the internet and kitchen which reduces their operational costs. The volunteer notes:

> *"We work from a co-working space and don't have any assets. I guess we own laptops that were donated so in that sense we have*

> *some assets but we don't have a monetary value for them. We don't actually have a process for this." VMC 8*

In organisations that are significantly more established and have large items, these are part of their financial statements and reporting, therefore, the monetary value of these items shows on their financial position as assets that add to the going concern of the organisations. Further to that, some organisations assign certain items to projects and individuals working on those projects internally so as to be able to insure the goods and monitor the asset register.

> *"We have an asset register that is related to our Financial Statements. Each item is serialised according to an internal classification, allocated to a project or admin and then a person. All items are insured so that we can replace them. The administrator deals with this and the Director checks it from time to time." VMC 15*

In addition to the process mentioned by VMC 15 above, some organisations use technology and its capability to manage the security and whereabouts of assets as noted in the quotation below:

> *"There is an asset register that keeps track of all the hard things like tables, chairs and so on. Then for the electronics, we are on android devices and can manage those through the cloud with Google for Non-profit and these are assigned to offices and programmes which are in turn allocated to people." VMC 7*

There is a myriad of ways that organisations manage their assets within organisations. What the study has found is that organisations develop an asset register which can be done electronically or manually, certain assets are documented in the asset register and added to the balance sheet of an organisation and their overall management of the asset register is then easier and the role of the director is more oversight. There is a dearth of scholarship, part from accounting practices, as to how assets of an organisation are to be managed with only De V Smit (2014) alluding to the acquisition of management of assets as part of the expenditure of the organisation and record keeping in the annual financial statements.

Interestingly, there are some organisations that use technology as a management tool to track the location of electronic assets and therefore maintain accurate records of

their assets. From the study and literature review, it appears that this is an area needing further research and investigation.

6.3.4 Theme 4: Transformation/change management

In South Africa transformation and change management are often conflated and thought of in relation to the legality of transformation and being able to acquire Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment compliance points through corporate funding and government tenders for service delivery as outlined in the Financial Awards Policy of the Department of Social Development (DSD, 2011). In the social services, transformation of welfare services is an imperative of government as enshrined in the Constitution of South Africa, the White Paper for Social Welfare and various other legislation (RSA, 1997a; Gray, 2006; Davids & Theron, 2014; Patel, 2014)

However, in management, transformation is a planned process that organisations embark on to manage change. Therefore, transformation is the process of managing change while maintaining continuity of operations (Weinbach, 2003).

6.3.4.1 Category: Human change management

Human change management is closely linked to the human resources management tasks and is primarily related to the coaching, mentoring and development of people in their roles in order to achieve organisational objectives more efficiently and effectively. Noteworthy, as the literature in Chapter 4 indicates, in South Africa transformation and human change management is primarily concerned with race and gender and to a lesser degree disability and is legally binding for management of organisations. Laws such as the BBBEE Act (RSA, 2013a) and Basic Conditions of Employment Amendment Act (RSA, 2002) compel government departments, businesses and large organisations to take a serious look at their structure as pertains to transformation so they can be demographically representative of South Africa. These regulations only really start to take effect in organisations that are more established and have a staff complements above a certain predetermined legal cap. In the two quotations below, these two volunteers centre their transformation on the need for representation and selecting candidates for the management committee

according to race groups and gender.

> *"For a short while we had a white woman who was one of the facilitators and it just did not work out for a whole variety of reasons. We also wondered how it would work out with partners. In some ways transformation is not an issue but on the other hand it is. On the one hand [name of organisation] is at the fore front of cutting edge innovation for our work; so, in that way its contributing to transformation. However, with the other programmes, we sit and wonder how we can make it more relevant and transformed." VMC 3*

> *"We are a female run organisation, even though the programmes beneficiaries are all boys. We haven't even thought about this or transformation." VMC 8*

Juxtaposing these two organisations and the reality of their understanding of transformation within their organisational milieu, the former organisation represented predominantly white organisations and their challenge of white people working directly with programmes beneficiaries and the complexity of managing that process while the latter organisation's main considerations are gender and how women and men (and boys) were represented in the organisation. Beyond that, transformation was not a management issue for consideration beyond needing to respond to the interview question. In contrast, a predominately black organisation, working with black youth had made a management decision to keep the management committee exclusively black linked to the organisational goals of putting the spotlight on black excellence and showing black youth that black role models exist. However, the volunteer makes a noteworthy observation that disability is an area that has not been considered in their organisation as she notes below:

> *"Transformation is not an issue for us. It hasn't been and I can see how disability and inclusion will be in future. As it stands, we are deliberately keeping it a black board [committee] with our philosophy that we would like to make visible more role models for the kids." VMC 5*

Both the findings from the volunteers and social service professionals corroborate that there is little thought or consideration given to transformation and change management. In more cases than not, the transformation task is not performed at all or only discussed in the echelons of top management and not at the staff level as is

evinced by the two quotations below:

> *"I don't think organisations take a good enough look at their change management strategies and how it impacts on their transformation. We as an organisation certainly don't do it. We know we must do it, but we don't actually do it. SSP 15*

> *"The discussion on transformation is above my paygrade but I guess we haven't actually had to deal with this. We are gender represented as its mainly women but I am not sure what the board policy is on this." SSP5*

Many organisations that participated in the study seemed to believe that transformation management was not part of their remit or that it did not apply to their organisation as it served primarily black clients or had predominantly black staff and volunteers. This belief was firmly held that if the organisation is predominantly black, the rules don't apply to them in the same way as a historically white organisation. The SSP13's statement below illustrates the point very aptly:

> *"We are predominantly black. Does it count in that case?" SSP 13*

The evidence provided by the findings of the research is contrary to the emphasis by legalisation that transformation is an area of urgency for the currently. While legally enshrined in laws like BBBEE, BCEA, Affirmative Action, there does not seem to be a lived reality of needing to be representative. This may be precisely because these laws pertain to large scale organisations and corporations that social service NPOs often fall under the radar. The requirements of the aforementioned legislation, as relates to size of an organisation, only institutes penalties and punitive measures for non-compliance after the fact. Therefore, this lax legal approach to transformation might actually be disincentives NPOs to consider transformation more seriously and urgent. This disincentive may be the reason that Patel, Hochfeld, Graham and Selipsky (2008) found that since 1996, there was a slow progress in transformation, particularly within the management of social welfare services with white males still in the majority in management positions, seconded by women and black women at the coalface of the harsh work.

There seems to be a dearth of knowledge and understanding, both from the volunteers and social service staff on transformation and how it pertains to their work and organisations. Therefore, there is little to no consideration for transformation and how it relates to their work. This is of great concern considering that the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1996) on how the social services needed to transform the social work profession from its apartheid history.

6.3.4.2 Category: Process management

Process management as a subset of transformation and change management is concerned with the business development processes of an organisation, systems, technology, job roles and organisational structures, which is a senior management. The study participants did not articulate this as an area of interrogation or concern for their organisations. However, it is noteworthy, that as none had mentioned it and therefore may indicate the current climate of the country as being racialized and needing racial transformation at the expense of process and systems change management; which may be related to human management.

6.3.5 Theme 5: Project management

Project management is the managing of the implementation of a project or programmes within the parameters of an organisation (Spolander & Martin, 2012). Herbst (2014) and Adirondack (2006) both expand on this understanding of project management as a circular process of project conceptualisation and initiation, project planning, project implementation or execution, monitoring and project closure; with the project closure potentially informing the next project conceptualisation and therefore continuing the cyclical loop of managing the process.

Project management as a managerial task is ill defined across all the study participants, even with clarification from the researcher, which is indicative of the misunderstanding that exists in organisations on what project management is. In the case of one volunteer, they described project management as follows:

> *"The board has been managing programmes, so heading up parts of the programmes and then adding to the strategy development and the goals of the organisation and what we want to*

> *achieve….As the organisation grows, these roles are changing to separate management and the board. The key tasks of the board will be oversight, risk management and decision making and adding support in key areas such as strategic planning, human resources, financial management and compliance." VMC 5*

While the except above does not specify the project management tasks as defined in in previous sections of this report, it is indicative of the general findings of the study population of the fifteen volunteers on management committees whereby volunteers are heavily involved in programmes to the neglect of management tasks. The findings indicate that the project management cycles as defined by Spolander and Martin (2012) and Hurst's (2014) which state that there are four stages the project management plan takes a project cycle approach, namely, 1) project conceptualisation and initiation, 2) project planning, 3) project execution and implementation, and 4) project closure; are not strictly upheld and there is a variation of the project management process within the sampled social service organisations.

In the majority of organisations, volunteers on management committees are directly involved in the project management of programmes, therefore, staff experience them on a regular basis. Volunteers are at the frontline of programmes delivery, design and monitoring along the strategy of the organisation (whether articulated or not). One SSP notes the following:

> *"We operate outside of the traditional committee structures because we are all in the trenches working. Volunteers will be busy with the office work, us social workers will be with the clients. The something like a flood or fire will happen and then everyone is out in the field." SSP5*

> *"Our chairperson is very senior and has a wealth of knowledge in running businesses, so he guides us in our work and how we are supposed to do things. I am not always sure he understands us as an NPO but none of us know what we are meant to do, so we follow his lead in managing projects." VMC 12*

Of note in the interview with SSP5 notes that in their organisation, the volunteers are directly involved in project management, however, they both mention that these roles will shift as the organisation builds capacity. In her view, she understands the volunteer's role as being strategic planning, human resources, financial management

and compliance and decision-making instead of day-to-day programmes delivery; therefore, creating a separation of powers.

Moreover, in some organisations, there is no clear distinction between the volunteer and staff. In the case below, the volunteer is also a staff member as per the statement below:

> *"I am both Board and staff member although unpaid. As both roles, I do a lot. So, I do team coordination, recruitment of the team, oversight on programmes, fundraising is the biggest task I perform and progress on the delivery and monitoring of the strategy. Those are my biggest tasks I perform for the organisation." SSP 15*

There is a consistent cross-over between governance and project management in many of the organisations included in the study. This role confusion is precisely why this study's findings are important in illuminating the complex and messy role that these unique volunteers on management committees of social service NPOs play in organisational development and governance. Furthermore, social service staff seem to have more clarity in understanding and articulating project management as opposed to the volunteers. This may be indicative of the social work training and the management theory included in the syllabus for social service professions.

Guo (2007) cautions against the duality of roles for volunteers precisely because the management committees should be responsible for governance serving at the highest level of the organisational structure and serve to make decisions that impact the strategic direction of the organisation, ratify policies, hold management teams accountable to key decisions and maintain the organisational hierarchy. By assuming both management as well as governance roles, the lines of authority are blurred, decisions that govern the organisations are made by the very same people whom they affect and the fiduciary role become risky to manage with external donors and stakeholders (Guo, 2007).

The findings also indicate that this is an area of development and needing better articulation because there exists evidence for programmes delivery but the process followed in how programmes are designed, implemented, resourced and managed is

a gap across the board for the study interview participants.

6.3.6 Theme 6: Fundraising

In order for organisations to survive and implement programmes, they need to mobilise resources through generating an income. That activity of sourcing and mobilising resources is known as fundraising. Fundraising is concerned with the securing of material resources (often financial) to enable the organisation to function (Herbst, 2014). In South Africa, social service non-profits receive funding through three main funding channels, namely: government grants, foundations and the private sector and self-generated income (De V Smit, 2014). Thus, organisations are required to spend a large proportion of their time securing resources to enable their activities to happen.

6.3.6.1 Category: Events driven fundraising

Organisations, in their efforts to mobilise resources, employ various strategies to generate income. The research findings suggest that NPOs are diversifying their income streams beyond conventional grants and government service agreements in order to sustain operations. Some of the ways that the organisations diversify their income is through annual fundraising events as reported below:

> *"We have a lady who has volunteered to be our fundraiser. I meet with her, we brainstorm the ideas on events for the year and what we need to raise. I manage that with her but this is an area that's been lacking as we keep trying to get it right. We have golf days, sports days, comedy evenings, and companies who adopt a programmes. We've only applied to the National Lotteries through a proposal." VMC 8*

This excerpt suggests that sports events are good way for organisations to generate unrestricted funding. In transient organisations, there is a heightened awareness to create a social business case in order to achieve autonomy and financial sustainability.

> *We don't function like an ideal organisation. So, I don't pull a salary and no one does. At the moment, we are passion driven and we are currently working on financial sustainability and working on the business model to ensure that the organisation runs regardless of us being there or not." VMC 1*

While annual events are fairly common in the fundraising of non-profits, seldom are organisations able to sustain entire multi-year operations solely on the proceeds from those events. Yet, one organisation was able to, and has in the process realised the need to transition to conventional fundraising through grant making and proposal development. Anheier (2005) makes the distinction between pure non-profits and those enterprising non-profit organisations that go beyond the conventional proposal writing or relying on government subsidies as primary sources of income. This is supported by the findings of the research, where organisations were involved in a variety of activities precisely for generating funds.

The enterprising behaviour of non-profit organisations is an interesting development as it requires volunteers and managers to possess two very unique and specialised skills, namely: 1) the ability to develop a sustainable business for good based on business acumen, and 2) manage a social service organisation that by its very nature is not profit generating and thus can seldom be a business. Thus, volunteers need a new skill set that will allow them flexibility and agility to respond to the changing operational environment as well as the economic environment. This entrepreneurial behaviour of managing income in noted by Young and Salamon (2003) and Anheier (2005) as a new fast-growing trend where NPOs were monetizing some or all of their activities, selling services or membership, consulting on best practice models which to allow the non-profit sector to gain financial security.

6.3.6.2 Category: Grant writing/proposal development

De V Smit (2014) notes that financing social welfare and care is an onerous task that requires strategies for how funds are to be mobilised, managed and reported on. Part of, if not the biggest part, in the management tasks of organisations is the mobilisation of resources. Therefore, the practice of volunteers in the study is congruent with scholarship in this area of management as can be noted by the responses below:

> *"Fundraising proposals they just keep us [director and operations manager] updated but we are not directly involved at that." VMC 11*

In the excerpt above, the volunteer does not directly fundraise as this is done by the

director and operations manager, however, in the second excerpt below, the volunteer was directly developing proposals while being supported by other volunteers in the management committee.

> *"I do all the proposal writing and submissions. The other board members contribute through networks and opening doors. One thing we've started is that each board member on their birthday use it as an organisation day and get money for the organisation." VMC 5*

> *"We are continually fundraising. Sometimes I am tasked with helping develop proposals or gathering data for it. As the director, it is often my job to do so actually." SSP15*

The majority of organisations noted that proposal development and donor relations took up a huge proportion of their time and the director's time and was an area that could not be neglected. Conventional fundraising is done through proposal development and securing funds from donors in the form of grants or service contracts (Herbst, 2014). Proposal writing and submission, as a primary source for fundraising, is in line with research by Northon and Culshaw (2000) who note that a substantial amount of time of a non-profit manager's time is spent developing the tailored proposal that is clear, aligned to donor prioritises and has a logical and methodological process of how the problem identified will be solved through the activities of the organisation and how the impact will be monitored and evaluated.

6.3.6.3 Category: Donor management

Once the onerous task of proposal writing, submission has been completed and donors have agreed to fund the project there is a completely new relationship that is required between the grantee and the donor. This relationship extends beyond the financial management and reporting. Participants in the study over emphasised the need to develop a relationship with the donor beyond the contractual arrangement and this may be in the form of quarterly check-ins, update newsletters or annual reports. A caveat offered by one volunteer that had extensive donor funding experience, the role of the volunteers was to safeguard the organisation against donor driven agendas. He shared that donors had the potential to drive their own agenda which can cause a mission drift and derail the organisation from its core

business. Furthermore, the volunteer shared that their role is to ensure donors do not drive the agenda of the organisation:

> *"I am always weary about donor driven agendas on the board of organisations. Historically, donors dictated the agenda of organisations and I guess more recently this is changing. Our job as the board is to safe guard the organisation against this donor driven agenda." VMC3*

While organisations spend a significant amount of time fundraising from the state, grants from donors, income from entrepreneurial activities and events to secure funds, there are also risks associated with donors imposing their will on NPOs and therefore determining the growth of an organisation. Nevertheless, the recurring theme of organisations' needing to develop business models for their organisations is congruent with the opinion presented by Weinbach (2003) and Hafford-Letchfield (2007) who note that more and more organisations are embarking on entrepreneurial activities to secure funds and therefore diversify their income streams, much like businesses.

As previously indicated, fundraising is the deliberate effort by organisations to mobilise resources that will enable them to achieve their mission. Therefore, it was noted that volunteers were heavily involved in the fundraising of social service organisations in previous sections above. However, SSP staff below report that actually fundraising is a whole organisational activity in some organisations with people being pulled in to perform some tasks related to proposal development or even appointed in the position of a fundraiser.

> *"We are continually fundraising. Sometimes I am tasked with helping develop proposals or gathering data for it. As the director, it is often my job to do so actually." SSP15*

The excerpts above serve to reinforce the interconnectedness of the essential management tasks as fundraising is inextricably linked to financial management. Once the donor funds are secured, systems need to be developed to monitor the use of funds, evaluate their impact and report on how funds are utilised. De V Smit (2014) emphasises the need for financial reporting to ensure that activities were conducted in keeping with the planned budget.

6.3.7 Theme 7: Information, communications and systems management

information, communication and systems management is a critical part of keeping the organisation, staff, beneficiaries and partners on the same page about developments. Therefore, communication can be defined as a multi-direction flow of information and enables the manager to pass information, gather vital intelligence and engage in external communication with external parties and stakeholders (Smit & Cronje, 1999). As a managerial task, communication requires managers to be familiar with technological advances in the communication fields to enable the speedy transmission of information, storage and information management (Pretorius, 2014).

The organisations included in the study seemed to have nascent but deliberate strategies for processing information, internal or external communication and therefore the systems upon which to manage the communication. One organisation shared the following:

> *"We have a bit of a presence on Facebook, Twitter and a website for PR and communicating our message. I make sure they keep alive on twitter and things like that. As a board, we obviously communicate electronically. The main thing is that we get regular updates from the director. This is in addition to the director's 10-page report at the board meetings which then make up the annual report. We are always kept informed about what is happening. Decisions we make at the board meetings and occasionally we have to do email round robins." VMC 3*

Smit and Cronje (1999) note that organisations communicate, whether intentional or not, and the lack of communication is in itself communication. The art of communication requires that managers be familiar with existing technologies such as the ones shared above like email, Facebook and twitter in order to manage and share information (Pretorius, 2014). Yet, this is an area of serious neglect by organisations included in this research. This is indicative of where organisational priorities lie with some tasks like financial management and fundraising enjoying much more prominence over others. Furthermore, communication tasks are not seen as interlinked strategies for fundraising and growing the profile of the organisation nor

as sharing the impact from their monitoring and evaluation.

Communication is a key function of any organisations and is the continual flow between internal and external sources that are constantly providing information that inform decision making within organisations (Smit & Cronje, 1999). In thriving organisations, technology is used as an enabler for internal communication and collaborative work (Reyneke, 2014). In one organisation, technology as shown below, is used to share information across several platforms:

> *"I have a work email address, we email and then call each other. We use Whatsapp in the team, use Google and Dropbox to get work done collaboratively. We have a weekly staff meeting and I submit a report on my work. That's it." SSP5*

Noteworthy, is the use of several technology platforms and thereby providing staff with multiple ways to receive information. In more conservative organisations, communication is often stifled and restricted to a few team members which may contribute to a trust deficit. The excerpt below shows how some organisations adopt a top-down approach of communication and information management:

> *"Most of the time, the board communicate with the director only. The director will give some information to the office manager. The two are always in board meetings together. They will give us some of that feedback that is relevant to us. I have never spoken to anyone on the board or communicating with us directly." SSP12*

Chiefly, organisational information communication seems to occur between the top management and middle management but seldom trickles down to the staff. In the example shared above, the social worker has no direct communication with the volunteers on the management committees and suggests that communication is often top down. Moreover, in the example above, the information is being mediated to key staff depending on their role. This finding is in contradiction to literature that indicates that communication should have a multi-direction flow and enables staff to gather vital intelligence and impacts on how staff communicate and represent the organisation to the external stakeholders (Smit & Cronje, 1999; Reyneke, 2014).

6.3.8 Theme 8: Monitoring and evaluation

Organisations need to produce evidence of their efficacy as well as know how well

they are doing. The way that organisations can measure successes and challenges, is through monitoring and evaluation. Thus, monitoring and evaluation can be defined as the tools, systems and behaviours organisations employ to assess the process of performance against the predetermined objectives (Hafford-Letchfield (2007). Monitoring is regular and occurs continually as a control function while evaluation is longer term and done at appropriate intervals (Drucker,1986; Weinbach,2003).

6.3.8.1 Category: Management committee effectiveness

Historically, monitoring and evaluation has been concerned with process monitoring and evaluation and programmatic monitoring and evaluation to the neglect of leadership and governance. Management committees and their effectiveness has not had prominence in civil society organisations but with the introduction of the mandatory King Report III on South Africa Good Governance (Price Waterhouse Coopers, 2009) for business, NPOs have come under scrutiny about their own governance as custodians of public funds and beneficiaries. Additionally, DSD developed the Code of Good Practice for NPOs and then conducted an audit of its use within NPOS. It found that the majority of NPOs did not know the Code, those that knew about it were not putting it into practice and even fewer organisations have utilised it as a governance tool (Umhlaba Development Services, 2005; DSD, 2009).

The duality of both staff and governor role that volunteers occupy on management committees of social service organisations makes it harder to evaluate the performance of the management committee in relation to the achievement of the mission of the organisation. Yet these volunteers are critical to the attainment of the mission. The following two volunteers aptly note this dual role and the need to evaluate performance and processes for ending volunteer engagement as follows:

> *"We don't do enough board evaluations. Formal evaluations are a waste of time for volunteer organisations. We are reflective and that's why we benefit from having people like [name omitted] on the committee because she always brings us back to that reflection. We get involved in the evaluation of the annual strategic plan, performance of staff and we get feedback on that. The extent to which board members can be held to account in an*

> *organisation where board members are purely voluntary is always tricky." VMC3*
>
> *"I wouldn't introduce terms to boards just to drive a particular agenda but I think that there needs to be a process for telling board members to move on." VMC 7*

This role contestation is noted in literature by Guo (2007), who states that in their governance role, management committees serve at the highest level of the organisational structure and serve to make decisions that impact the strategic direction of the organisation, ratify policies, hold management teams accountable to key decisions and maintain the organisational hierarchy. However, in the management role, these volunteers are tasked with operational functions, which include the management functions (planning, organising, leading and control) as originally identified by Fayol (1949) (see chapter 4), which provide a management framework for management committees and managers to execute management tasks. What these quotes and literature do not fully highlight is the fact that volunteers serve on management committees on a moral basis, are not compensated in monetary terms, and therefore can leave at any time with little to no repercussions to themselves. There is thus, a continual trade off as to what can be asked of volunteers versus the voluntary nature and time restrictions people may have.

6.3.8.2 Category: Programmes evaluation

In line with existing literature and global practice, there is activity and focus of programmes monitoring and evaluation as defined as the continual data collection to inform programmes direction and corrective action where needed. In the study, organisations predominantly kept data on beneficiary biographical data, attendance, health records and emergency contact information. The two examples below illustrate the varied nature in which organisations monitor and evaluate their programmes:

> *"We have kept it small deliberately because we are not in a sustainable position. We haven't had a large M&E scope. It's just keeping data on the athlete's school work, trainings and bursaries." VMC 4*
>
> *"For programmes impact, we record the marks of the learner and their attendance. We are trying to measure whether the*

> *attendance correlates with their marks. We record the parent attendance and feedback, youth programmes evaluations and tutor feedback templates on the sessions. We track organisation effectiveness based on programmes impact." VMC 5*

Beyond the organisational imperative to know how one's organisation is performing, there is growing donor controls over aid and funding, therefore, organisations need to show evidence for their work to compete for a shrinking pool of donor funds linked to performance. Yet, the tracking of information, observing trends, communicating changes and passing relevant data to colleagues, superiors and or subordinates and external stakeholders is neglected (Hafford-Letchfield, 2007). This may be related to the lack of strategic planning as per the findings of on the section on strategic planning. Strategic planning allows for the clarifying of goals and metrics to be tracked and therefore informs the monitoring and evaluation systems organisations need to develop in order to show their impact. By failing to plan accordingly, monitoring and evaluation remain elusive concepts that organisations battle to operationalise.

Monitoring and evaluation is central to the learning process of an organisation and therefore should be built into the strategic planning process as programmes are designed, human resources (appraisals) are planned for as well as the financial management of an organisation. This process of M&E requires the involvement of every member of the team, stakeholders and management to take ownership and provide input (Hafford-Letchfield, 2007). The study found that in actual fact, donors often dictate the data collected for the monitoring and evaluation, they provide templates and therefore dictate the data that organisations report on. As noted by the SSP12 below, sometimes donors dictate the terms of what is reported and therefore monitored and evaluated:

> *"The Department of Social Development provides a template and it has steps and indicators, outputs and outcomes. We report on this as part of our funding. Each programmes is driven by what we need to report on for funding and so we collect data for that. Most of the time we fight with the management here because we as social workers work on client centred approaches. Sometimes I will want to do behaviour therapy and why that has to be applied and why I can't evaluate. There's a lot of conflict between us social workers and the management because they don't understand*

> *how we work. The programmes is mainly run by us social workers and we report to the office manager. He feedbacks to the director and then he feedbacks to the board and donors." SSP12*

Along with donor driven templates related to reporting requirements, organisations do not develop strategic plans that are articulated in a theory of change or some other visual way, nor do they determine metrics and therefore open themselves up to donor influences.

On the other hand, some organisations may not have a strategic plan but develop success indicators which are then tracked using cloud-based sales management software to enable them to track their metrics. This is reflected in the quotation below by the respondent.

> *"We have a theory of change with metrics, we then track those using Salesforce and that helps us know how far we are from reaching our targets." SSP6*

The findings above are very much in line with understanding the purpose of monitoring and evaluation which seeks to verify that work has been done, used to track programmes performance and report to donors, stakeholders and beneficiaries (Hafford-Letchfield, 2007; Marshall & Suarez, 2014). However, there is a disconnect between what volunteers understand of monitoring and evaluation and the SSP's understanding. Additionally, SSP know more about the organisation's monitoring and programmes evaluation, than volunteers do, which suggests that this management task is in fact performed by staff at the operational level rather than volunteers on the management committees.

Lastly, the work of social workers and their clinical practise is sometimes not aligned to organisational timelines and reporting, therefore, causing conflict. This conflict and tension between management and social service professions is particularly interesting because the majority of volunteers are not social workers and therefore may not understand the clinical practise social workers are required to employ in the best interest of the client. Yet volunteers are at the top management level and make decisions and determinations on the services to be provided by social service professionals.

6.3.9 Theme 9: Public relations and stakeholder management

Public relations (PR) and stakeholder management in NPOs is aptly described by Daymon and Holloway (2011) as intentional persuasive communication whereby communicators and stakeholders are relationally active in creating and constructing meaning in the social world. Technology has enabled many more people to become agents of PR in getting information out and this is witnessed in the way NPOs have used social media as part of their PR strategies (Curtis, Edwards, Fraser, Gudelsky, Holmquist, Thornton & Sweetser, 2009). Public relations as a management tasks is concerned with the marketing of the organisations, external communication of the organisation, maintaining the brand of the organisation and therefore the reputation of the organisation (Lewis, 2007). Thus, PR is concerned with the organisation's ability to communicate with the external world on very specific messages.

Public relations is understood to mean different things to different people in the organisations that were included in the study. This is evinced in the quotations that follow as to what volunteers understood PR to mean:

> *"PR is a bit of a shmooze with donors. The main PR event once a year is the AGM and we have the shortest AGM in Cape Town. The entire AGM is one hour long and the rest is spent networking with donors and stakeholders. We also invite donors on sports events and thinks like that." VMC 3*

In the organisation above, PR is primarily linked to fundraising and building the case for donations with current donors and prospective donors. Therefore, all volunteers and staff are responsible for the network, brand building and relationship building in the example mentioned by VMC 3. On the other hands, other organisations don't consider social media as PR even though they are very active in online as evinced by the excerpt below:

> *"We don't do anything on the PR except for Facebook, twitter and Instagram. I run that but don't have any skills. I guess its PR but we don't have a vision of what PR would look like." VMC 8*

Interestingly, there is a varied understanding of PR as a concept within NPOs which may be indicative of the value such tasks have within the organisation. Moreover, some volunteers do not consider the use of technology as an enabler for PR but rather

see that in itself as PR, whereas the more institutional organisations primary trade relationships as PR.

Meanwhile, other organisations harness their beneficiaries as ambassadors for their work and thus scaffold the PR of the organisations downward as can be seen in the excerpt here:

> *"The children have become ambassadors of the programmes and the parents too. We see parents coming to say you've helped my child and I have a neighbours' child that would like to join. We have a website and Facebook. That's all the PR we do." VMC 5*

The incoherence, unplanned and uncoordinated task of managing the organisation's PR is in direct opposition of literature that says public relations is a planned activity that communicates to the outside world deliberate messaging about the organisation and its work or constituents (Lewis, 2007).

There is relatively little done in execution of the public relations tasks as it relates to the management of the organisations, furthermore, in cases where opportunistically a PR task arises, it is left to anyone and everyone to make it up as they go along. Of significance is the last quotation that starts to speak to programmes beneficiaries being ambassadors of the organisation and therefore communicating the impact of the organisation to the outside world. However, what they say is not documented nor is it coordinated and therefore the impact of the communication invariably cannot be quantified.

As seen with the volunteers, public relations is not a deliberate effort of many organisations and occurs where opportunities arise. There is no clearly assigned person who is responsible for this role. The study found that sometimes, context specific, the social service professionals were put in positions where they had to acquire social media skills in order to grow the profile of the organisation:

> *"I definitely do that. Sometimes the volunteers help but it's mainly me. I have radio interviews, I do the social media applications, I write blogs for the organisation and I attend all events and functions. Sometimes I will ask a volunteer to join me but most times I am alone." SSP15*

The findings suggest, that in some organisations, staff are tasked with leading on the PR and may be able to draw volunteers as and when needed, as noted by the quotation above. In some instances, the media contact person conducts interviews and manages the stakeholders in relation to the organisation. This is reflected by the response by the participant below:

> *"The office manager and I maintain relationships with the stakeholders we work with. We are not involved with funders or prospective funders. We always contact and keep the relationship going with the Department of Health, [name of NPO omitted], Social Services and NGOs." SSP12*

Noteworthy, from the SSP12 above is the segregation of tasks between the volunteers on management committees and staff. In this particular organisation, the VMC12 indicates that they perform the PR and stakeholder management tasks primarily for growing the profile of the organisation and donor relations; whereas; staff do PR for the purpose of ensuring programmes delivery occurs through collaboration and partnerships. This segregation of duties seems to be the norm in organisations when it comes to key management tasks to be performed. Lastly, the bulk of the study's evidence suggests that the PR task lies with senior staff, and not the volunteers on the management committees, as would be expected.

6.4 Conclusion

The purpose of chapter six was to discuss the findings of the empirical study on the essential management tasks performed by volunteers on the management committees of social service NPOs in relation to existing body of literature as detailed in Chapters one to four.

Firstly, organisational profiles, including details on years in service, academic qualifications gender, education and employment status of participants in social service organizations and volunteers were presented in order to give a holistic view of the study participants. The empirical data was presented as narratives on the management tasks as performed by volunteers and the understanding of social service professionals on the management of these tasks within the organisations. The narratives were described, contrasted, corroborated and compared to the literature

studies as previously expounded on in the Chapters one to four.

In summary, the findings suggest that volunteers are tasked with juggling a number of management tasks in the execution of their roles, this often leads to prioritisation and placing greater emphasis on some tasks to the detriment of others. Additionally, volunteers may spread one task, such as financial management, across several people and layers of management with parts outsourced in order to make light work.

The way volunteers perform management tasks is often determined by the size of the organisation, with smaller organisation needing more project management tasks, and more established organisation more of an oversight role. Telling is that organisations seldom undergo strategic planning, are running activities with no clear blue print and therefore cannot measure their impact. Where donors are interventionist, organisations monitor and evaluate according to donor templates or reporting requirements.

Also, the use of technology in monitoring and evaluation and communications is in line with global trends and best practice as outlined by Reyneke (2014) who notes that there is a growing trend to use technology as an enabler for work streams within organisations.

The study asked volunteers to provide any other tasks that might have been omitted, there were none provided. This indicates that the nine management tasks presented were a comprehensive list of tasks to be performed by volunteers on the management committees of NPOs.

Lastly, the findings suggest that the social service professionals are often not aware of the management tasks performed by volunteers or there is little to no information provided, yet decisions taken have a bearing on the way social service professionals carry out their work. In some cases, limited information pertaining to a key area is shared and the rest of the information is omitted, or shared on a need to know basis. This is indicative of a trust deficit among staff and volunteers of some of these organisations.

CHAPTER 7 - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The study aimed to gain an understanding of the nature and scope of essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of social service organisations NPOs. This chapter aims to draw on the previous six chapters, more so on Chapter Six, to offer recommendations and conclusion based on the findings of the research.

This chapter, therefore, aims to draw conclusions from the findings as presented in the empirical study in the Chapter Six, and to then offer recommendations where appropriate. The recommendations will serve to guide social workers offering capacity support to NPOs, DSD as it implements the Financial Awards Policy, funders who aim to build capacity in organisations, volunteers on management committees as well as the broader NPO sector on ways to build capacity and support volunteers so they can be better utilised. Moreover, the recommendations can also inform future research that was outside the ambit of this study for prospective researchers interested in exploring management and governance as it pertains to the social work profession.

The conclusions and recommendations are offered in an attempt to strengthen the management of social service non-profit organisations by volunteers serving on the management committees of these organisations. Additionally, this chapter also aims to meet the fifth objective of the study which was to *present recommendations to NPOs and the relevant institutions regarding the findings of the study*.

In addition to the fifth study objective that this chapter fulfils, the other study objective were stipulated and achieved as follows:

- Objective 1: to contextualise and describe social service NPOs within South Africa's social development paradigm, and critically examine the current laws and policies pertaining to the NPO sector, which have implications for volunteers on management committees of NPOs. This was presented in Chapter 2 as outlined in the thesis report.

- Objective 2: was to analyse existing international and local theories and the body of knowledge on volunteerism within the NPO sector. Therefore, Chapter 3 addressed the existing contextual environment, both international and local theories, and the body of knowledge on volunteerism within the NPO sector. The literature chapter expounded and offered rich description on the legal framework as pertains to non-profits both locally and internationally, the social service organisations, volunteers and the social work profession. This juxtaposition of the three elements of the NPOs, volunteers and social work profession and the intricate and diverse social and legal landscape helped set the context of the study and the parameters in which the findings are to be understood.
- Objective 3: to describe and synthesize the management tasks, both distinctive and perceived, that volunteers are expected to execute within the context of NPOs, based on functions embedded in appropriate management schools of thought. In Chapter 4, the report explored and formed a description and synthesis of management tasks, that volunteers were expected to execute within the context of NPOs. This objective was achieved by identifying nine reoccurring management tasks which shaped the data collection tools, the analysis in chapter six as well as the presentation of the research report.
- Objective 4: The fourth objective was to investigate the management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of social service organisations through empirical study. Chapter 5 therefore outlines the methodological chapter of the study and how the investigation was embarked on thus achieving this objective. Additionally, chapter 6 presents the findings of the empirical study with the analysis based on the literature chapters.
- Objective 5: to present recommendations to NPOs and the relevant institutions regarding the findings of the study. Chapter 7 presents the conclusions and recommendations of the empirical findings on the management tasks performed by volunteers. Therefore, the aim of this objective was duly achieved in the presentation of this chapter.

This Chapter addresses Objective 5 which was to draw conclusions and

recommendations as based on the findings of the study and for NPOs and the relevant institutions regarding the findings of the study.

7.2 Conclusions and recommendations

The overall research findings were rich with descriptions and narratives on the tasks performed by volunteers. In the analysis and drawing up of the findings, the respondent narratives were juxtaposed with literature to locate the findings in the broader social science scholarship of volunteers and management of social service organisations. Glaringly from the literature, there were areas where little research had been done on the vital role of volunteers on management committees of social service organisations and therefore highlights the need for further research. Moreover, the large body of knowledge that exist on management as a practice are derived from business or the public sector manage which are then transplanted to the non-profit social service sector.

Following from the findings presented in Chapter 6, the conclusions and recommendations are set out for firstly volunteers and secondly for social service professionals. Thus, the conclusions seek to answer the following questions in Chapter 1, as laid out here:

- *What* are the distinctive characteristics of the volunteers on management committees of NPOs?
- *What* is the nature and scope of the essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of NPOs?
- *How* do volunteers on management committees of NPOs operationalize management functions (planning, organising, leading and control) into management tasks?

The conclusions and recommendations presented in this Chapter are presented in the similar format as those of the findings in Chapter 6, the empirical study, and follows a similar layout based on the literature themes. Thus, the findings will be presented according to the themes as identified in the literacy and presented in chapter six.

Participant profiles of volunteers will be presented in relation to management demographics of social service organisations. Where possible, the recommendations will be presented immediately below the conclusions for each of the essential management tasks as they relate to volunteers on the management committees of social service NPOs.

7.2.1 Participant profiles

The participant profiles of volunteers indicate volunteers on management committees tend to serve for a period between 2 years and the longest was 21 years. Academic attainment was high with the majority of volunteers with either a degree, postgraduate degree with the exception of the two community members with Matric. While they are well educated, none of the qualifications were in management of social workers nor social service interventions.

In relation to gender, only 6 out of the 15 volunteers were female indicating a gender bias towards men on the management committees and further entrenches the notion that men are in leadership while women are grossly under represented. All of the volunteers included in the research were employed, except for one retired accountant indicating that volunteers volunteer to be on the management committees because of emotional or moral obligations to humanity rather than boredom or compensation.

From these profiles, it can be concluded that volunteers are predominantly white males, with a good education and volunteer to serve humanity rather than for gainful employment or improved career prospects.

Based on the above discussion, it is recommended that the directors of NPOs

- Actively seek out more African women and people with disability in order to be sensitive to the country's context and majority population group. This will also benefit the beneficiaries of the organisation as they will be equally represented.
- While education is an important characteristic in board selection, volunteers should be selected based on the skills and education as pertains to the sector in which the NPO operates. For example, a social service organization

providing social welfare, should ideally have a social service professional on the management committee to represent the interest of the profession and the clients.

- The duration of the term of volunteers in an organization also needs to be clearly defined so that volunteers may know when their time ends. While it may be beneficial to have long serving volunteers on the management committees, 21 years may be argued as far too long and may therefore pose challenges to change.

7.2.2 Strategic planning tasks

As mentioned in chapter six, there was very little evidence of strategic planning taking place even though it is the management task upon which all other management tasks are built. Strategic planning is therefore the deliberate process of articulating the end goal, how the organisation plans to achieve it, the resources required to achieve the goal and the measures of success. This plan can be represented in a number of ways with logic models as the most popular format. Regardless of format, an organisation needs to have a clear sense of direction and how it will get there over what period.

However, from the empirical study, it can be concluded that there is very little strategic planning taking place in social service organisations. Moreover, in cases where there was a semblance of strategic plans, it was often not wholly understood by both the volunteer nor the social service professionals. Moreover, volunteers perceived their role to be oversight in planning rather than actively participating in shaping the direction of the organisations.

As a result of the discussion above on strategic planning, it is recommended that:

- There is an increase and explicit expectation that volunteers participate actively in the development of strategic plans for an organization. These strategic plans should be reviewed at appropriate intervals.

Furthermore, it is recommended that, along with terms of office for volunteers, that clearly defined job descriptions and tasks are defined so that volunteers can work according to a mandate, similarly to how currently volunteers manage the financial

management tasks in many of the study's findings, so as to increase accountability and introduce board performance.

7.2.3 Human resources management tasks

Human resources (HR), has a vital role to play in an organisation's achievement of its goals as it concerns itself with people needing to perform activities. The study found that there was little interest in its development or area of focus. The NPOs did not have HR departments and this role was usually filled by the director or chairperson of the committee. In organisations where the volunteers are skilled in HR, they occupy that role of HR manager for the organisation. Furthermore, there is a disproportionate focus on recruitment and retention of volunteers and some staff, but the performance management is primarily in relation to the role of volunteers.

Evidence from the findings suggest that the founder member and their social capital plays a significant role in the quality and calibre of volunteers recruited onto the management committees of social service organisations.

Lastly, HR was a nascent management task within most organisations following basic legislation in this regard to manage employees but with very little attention paid to developing internal policies and guidelines to organisational culture.

Therefore, in light of the discussion above, the following is recommended:

- It is recommended that organisations continually reflect on their management and organisational structure to ensure that roles are clarified, staffing needs are planned for and that professional development of staff is a prominent area.
- Moreover, internal policies and employee manuals are encouraged to safeguard employees and employees against risk and role confusion.
- Performance management is only effective in the context of clearly defined roles, job descriptions, key performance areas and NPOs therefore need to pay closer attention to these prior to performance management of both staff and volunteers.

- Founders of organisations bring social capital; therefore, it is recommended that an exploration on the role of social capital is further investigated on how it impacts on the organisational development as a whole.
- There is a need for social service professionals to be curious about management committees of organisations that employ them and therefore should take an active role in learning and engaging in the management tasks as performed.
- Lastly, it is recommended that human resources be assigned to specific volunteers on the management committees as organisations can ill afford not to be deliberate about their staffing needs, retention and development where the majority of the work is done by people. Thus, a champion of HR is needed at the highest echelons of power within organisations to ensure adequate investment in the people of the organisations.

7.2.4 Financial management tasks

In the findings of the research, financial management enjoyed the most attention across from social service staff to the volunteers on the board. In practice, organisations proactively sought out a treasurer to assume oversight of the financial management role, some responsibilities were delegated to junior staff while other components were outsourced.

Traditionally, financial management was focussed on the budgeting, tracking expenses and forecasting for organisational sustainability. Furthermore, there was a clear distinction between how organisations managed their financial resources and their fixed assets. The findings also show that there is growing reliance on outsourcing the day-to-day human resources management and financial management of many organisations with very little oversight by the management committee on whether the chosen service provider is adequately performing. There is also limited transfer of skills for building organisational capacity and therefore contribute to the development of the organisations.

The majority of volunteers who are most involved in the management of organisations

are the chairperson and treasurer, which is in line with international governance and roles and responsibility of the committee chair person as outlined in the NPO Act of South Africa. However, these roles are ill defined and therefore are not performance related or linked to a specified plan. This is a great pity as organisations cannot know whether they are getting the most out of the skillset of volunteers or underutilising volunteers.

Thus, based on the findings, it is recommended that:

- Organisations develop an asset register and policy, induct staff on the policies and link their assets to their financial statements.
- The people responsible for recruiting volunteers, need to clarify the management tasks and roles as needed across the board for the organisation and conduct training and ongoing support for volunteers. The outsourcing of key management tasks should be for a defined period of time with a plan to eventually integrate the tasks into the organisation to contribute to organisational sustainability.
- With the outsourced tasks, there needs to be a designated volunteer and staff member who work through the work of the external service provider to check for errors and troubleshoot. This volunteer should also ideally be providing continuous feedback to the other volunteers on the management committee.

7.2.5 Transformation/change management tasks

The fourth task from the research was identified as transformation/change management and the way volunteers performed this task in the context of management committees. Transformation management concerns itself with the renewal of process or planning for change in an organisation, particularly with the racial and gender imbalances of South Africa's past. The literature review indicates that transformation/change management is the process of managing and supporting the transition of an organisation in response to the environmental, technological, geopolitical, funding while maintaining continuity of operations.

In a rapidly globalising world and where politics, technology and the economy change

daily and affect how organisations do things, this is an area of significant consideration within organisations. However, the research findings on the transformation management task indicates that only two areas were considered as vital, namely, human change management and process management. Human change management concerned itself with the demographic of human resources within organisations and ensuring that the representative staff were appointed in the right positions. Noteworthy from the findings, representation was mainly understood in terms of race and gender with little consideration to disability and inclusion.

Moreover, in the majority of NPOs, transformation was not considered topical as organisations primarily serviced the black population, which allowed them to claim BBBEE scores with donors. Transformation seldom looked at management committees. The oversight on management was precisely because legislation like BBBEE does not concern itself with organisations of a particular size and therefore some NPOs fly below the radar for needing to comply with statutory appointments in their management committees.

Secondly, the process management which is focussed on the business development with internal systems, adaptive technologies, job roles and structures, was not mentioned at all across the fifteen organisations. This is indicative that organisations, while clearly have adapted to technological advances, do not consider it as a part of their transformational strategy.

From these findings, it can be concluded that volunteers and social service organisations do not prioritise transformation management beyond the human resources changes. Volunteers are primarily in decision-making capacity but do not actively involve themselves in strategic planning, policy development and thus managing the transformation and change process. The second conclusion is that volunteers and staff do not see the interlinkages between the essential management tasks and therefore understand each in silos. This granular understanding, at the expense of the big picture, is limiting at a governance level as part of being top management requires a holistic view of the organisation, the environment and the ability to predict the future and develop change management process to address

those future changes to ensure the survival of the organisation.

Thus, derived from the discussion above, it is recommended that:

- Volunteers need to make linkages between the management tasks in order to effect change.
- Moreover, it is recommended that in the strategic planning (planning for change), organisations should take cognisance of the need for volunteer involvement in decision-making as a key strategy for retention and empowerment.
- Organisations need to be proactive about planning and implementing transformation management without the coercion of legislation or size as this sets a culture in organisations that they are committed to the developmental objectives of the country; with redress and equality as values.
- Volunteers need to prioritise transformation at the management committee level, more so than was indicated in the study and evinced in the profile of the volunteers.
- Moreover, there is limited representation of social service professionals in management committees and these volunteer networks continue to be male dominated. Thus, it is recommended that management committees fast track transformation to ensure representation.

7.2.6 Project management tasks

The fifth task was project management as identified in the literature. Project management denotes the managing and monitoring of the process of implementing a project within the specified parameters of the organisation. Therefore, projects can be described as the activities an organisation performs in order to produce outcomes. Projects have a start and end date and bring organisations closer to achieving their goals.

The features of projects are that they are planned, are implemented by individuals or teams, require material resources to execute and can be measured as they usually occur within a specified timeframe.

Volunteers are heavily involved in the activities of organisations and therefore perform pseudo staff functions where needed. In addition, the specific management functions (planning, organising, controlling, leading) as relates to project management were not clearly articulated but there was evidence of work being done. Thus, it can be concluded that volunteers, and management committees as a whole, pay little attention to designing, planning and monitoring interventions. Instead, there is urgency to deliver services which may lead to incoordination, wasteful expenditure that does not yield results and or failure.

The involvement of volunteers in the programmes delivery as well as the governance role, has resulted in role confusion when it comes to separation of powers, accountability channels and transparency in decision-making and thus opens the management committees up for coercion and bias when making decisions. The NPO Act is also very clear on the role of the managements committee as being specifically focussed on governance and therefore should remain neutral and objective as custodians of the organisations.

Based on the findings and discussion above, it is recommended that:

- Close attention be paid to the definition of the tiers of management in organisations, the creation of roles and responsibilities for volunteers and clear articulation of the separation of powers, increased accountability and diffused leadership.
- Volunteers and the management committees need to define a clear project management plan with a human resource plan to ensure that programme delivery can occur without the management committee being drawn into the service delivery. This is of significance as a large proportion of organisations seemed to rely heavily on their management committee to govern the organisation as well as deliver the services as planned for the year.
- Volunteers, from the onset, should insist on clear job specifications and board charter that determines conduct and what is duly expected of them. This may reduce the need to draw in this type of volunteer into programme delivery at the expense of the organisational governance.

7.2.7 Fundraising tasks

The sixth task as derived from the literature review is fundraising. Fundraising is the planned process of mobilising resources to support the implementation of a project within an organisation. Organisations can employ a number of strategies to generate these resources, some of which include proposal development, hosting events and then managing relationships with donors once funding has been disbursed.

Traditionally, NPOs have received money through service level agreements with government, grants from foundations and philanthropic funds, corporate social investment, self-generated income through service or membership fees, individual donations and events.

The research findings identified events and grants or proposal development as being the major ways in which organisations generate their income. This revelation leads to the conclusion that volunteers and social service organisations are not yet tapping the vast pool of resource through self-generated income, service fees and online giving.

Furthermore, the investment in donor relationships is a good strategy as it keeps donors engaged and sensitised to the organisation's work. Interestingly, fundraising consolidates the majority of the essential management tasks as it requires a clear plan of action (strategic plan), a system for managing the implementation of a project (project management), a process for retaining people in positions for the implementation of the project (human resources), a way to monitor and evaluate the expenditure against budget as well as the outcome (M&E and financial management) and report the impact (communications, marketing and PR). However, organisations in this research did not perceive these essential management tasks as integrated and seamless as presented. Therefore, it can be concluded that this fragmentation of the management tasks contributes to the ad hoc way in which volunteers perform these management tasks.

Based on the discussion above, it is recommended that:

- Volunteers educate themselves on fundraising, beyond the traditional events and proposal writing, to include technology and its use to mobilise online donations.
- Volunteers need education on the seamless integration of management tasks as relates to the way in which they are co-dependent, mutually reinforcing and cannot be viewed in silos. Adopting an integrated view may assist in developing more capacity and generating revenue.
- Volunteers, and indeed managers of social service organisations need to adopt a more integrated view of management tasks in order to maximise the work of the organisations, build relationships with new donors through marketing and public relations while also sharing their impact.

7.2.8 Information, communications and systems management tasks

The seventh task as derived from the literature study was information, communications and systems management in social service NPOs. Information, communications and systems management is a critical part of organisational development as it communicates, coordinates, stores institutional memory and is thus a multi-directional flow of information needing to be managed. This multi-directional flow of information is both internal in the organisation as well as external and provides much needed intelligence to the management committee so that they can make strategic high-level decisions about the organisation.

The research findings identified social media, the organisation's website, management reports and email as critical tools for communication in the NPOs at a high level. Interestingly, there was no mention of the content as being part of a larger communications strategy. Rather it was ad hoc and opportunistic.

Additionally, organisations that were technology advanced, tended to overuse technology with adopting various tools that were essentially the same or performed the same function. In some instances, there was over-communication on too many platforms, and too many cloud-based storage portals which may result in inefficiencies in terms of information management and utilisation.

Lastly, NPOs mainly focussed on tools for storing information (Dropbox, Google Apps) and communications (email, WhatsApp and social media) which are cloud-based solutions requiring some form of access to the internet and technological devices. There was little to no mention of back-up systems should these fail. This is a very dangerous approach as these tools are then very prone to viruses and other cyber-attacks which can mean losing the information completely.

Based on the conclusions above, it can be recommended that:

- Organizations develop communications strategies that align to sharing their work, coordinate content to safeguard misinformation being shared on behalf of the organization.
- Volunteers and staff need to have coordinated content/messages, training on the various social media and communications platforms being used within the organization. This will ease the burden off the single person responsible for sourcing and sharing information. Moreover, it safeguards the organization should that person depart, there will be other people who can easily assume the role and have the institutional memory to perform this critical task.
- Moreover, organisations need to safeguard themselves against cyber-attacks by developing secondary backup systems for information that is not necessarily reliant on the internet.
- Organisations should determine which platforms to use for communication and focus their energies on mastering those rather than sharing information across various platforms which can lead to information overload.
- Lastly, to prevent the need to use various platforms to service every need of the organization. It may be worthwhile for organisations to spend time planning the uses and evaluating the efficacy for some of the tools they need, allocate a small budget to customising these tools for their organisation and therefore having a more tailored experience for managing the information, communication and systems management.

7.2.9 Monitoring and evaluation tasks

The eighth task was identified as monitoring and evaluation (M&E), which refers to a

broad range of activities used to assess the performance of an organisation in meeting the needs of diverse stakeholders and measuring its performance relative to targets set. There are three distinctive types of M&E, namely: 1) monitoring, 2) formative evaluations, and 3) summative evaluations.

The research findings indicate that this is an elusive management tasks that needs far more attention in terms of measuring for impact. Moreover, the fact that organisations did not give a concerted effort or prioritise strategic planning, may has a direct bearing on how and what organisations need to monitor and evaluate. The interrelatedness of the management tasks means that one has an adverse effect on the other and offers no concrete foundation on which to perform the ancillary or other management tasks.

More so, some donors provided capacity and resources to enable NPOs to do M&E related to funding agreements. Thus, it can be concluded that donors, after identifying a capacity gap in organisations, actively devise tools to allow for M&E to be in place.

Furthermore, the performance of the management committee was an area of under development with many volunteers indicating that the moral contract of serving on a management committee of an NPO was not akin to employment and therefore harder to establish. However, volunteers are statutorily obligated to serve on the management committees of organisations and therefore can be held to account for performance or non-performance.

It is recommended, based on the discussion above, that:

- Volunteers develop a measureable strategic plan to enable the implementation of M&E within organisations.
- Volunteers need to be inducted on the statutory requirements and responsibilities of NPOs management committees so as to increase accountability and improve volunteer performance.
- M&E should be used for programme improvement and feedback to stakeholders rather than only a compliance tool for donors who track their own indicators. Organisations have a responsibility to their beneficiaries to

implement an M&E framework that can generate data on the efficacy and efficiency of the programmes of the organization.

- Moreover, the use of technology in M&E has been under reported by organisations and therefore organisations should share some of their findings and lessons with using technology as an enabler for development.
- It is recommended that a management committee charter be developed clearly dealing with what is expected, tasks to be performed, how and for what purpose these tasks will be performed, and how they will be monitored and evaluated as volunteers perform these management tasks.
- There is haphazard performances of management tasks both by the volunteer and as management practice within organisations, therefore, it is recommended that every organisation should map the essential management tasks as outlined in Chapter 6 and how they plan to operationalise these in practice as an organisation.

7.2.10 Public relations and stakeholder management tasks

The ninth and final theme, as derived from the literature, was public relations and stakeholder management. Public relations (PR) can be defined as the intentional persuasive communication to the external world of people or organisations.

The study findings indicate that volunteers focus their public relations to target existing donors and attract new donors which is closely related to the fundraising task of organizations. PR is managed through events where the organization has an opportunity to share their successes. There is little planning, coordination or being deliberate about what is required. Therefore, there is a need to take more deliberate and long-term action for developing the strategic PR of the organisation if it is to have the intended effect.

Based on the study findings, it is recommended that:

- Volunteers develop their PR and communications strategy linked to specific outcomes, evaluate these at the end of the campaign to ensure efficacy.

- Technology continues to be used as an enabler for PR activities but this should be consistent and across the board for everyone in the organisation.
- Lastly, organisations need a long-term view of what content is needed to promote the organisations, what mediums are most effective and therefore target accordingly in order to have the most impact.

7.3 Further research

- The study found that there is a growing reliance on outsourcing of key management tasks. The breadth and depth of this outsourcing is fairly undocumented in South Africa and requires some further exploration within the NPO context.
- The study found ongoing reference to the role of social capital of the founder of the organisation in curating the demographic of the volunteers appointed onto the management committees of the organisation. It would be a thought provoking research project to map the social capital of founders and the direct or indirect economic and social benefits to the organisation.
- There is a lack of local research in this vital area of social service management by non-social work professionals. More research is required on the effect of non-social work professionals in the governance and management of social service organisations.
- Another massive area of research is the skills audit of the exact skills volunteers bring to the management committees of NPOs, relative to the management tasks performed by volunteers.
- Furthermore, the synthesis of management relevant to the social services and particularly focussed on South Africa is necessary. This is a developing field; however, it is still reliant on business governance and management. More research that pertains to NPOs is needed.
- Research could also be undertaken about the resistance of social service professionals to consider career paths in management of social service NPOs and governance roles of organisations that they work in.

- Lastly, in addition to ongoing research on transformation, there needs to be education within organisations on what transformation actually is versus the current interpretation.

7.4 Concluding remarks

Management in the social services continues to be the enterprise of white males and is demonstrated by the demographics profiles of volunteers included in this study and affirmed by authors like Patel (2009). Women, particularly black women, remain the mechanisms upon which service delivery occurs.

Volunteers perform a myriad of highly specialised tasks that they often are not equipped to perform nor effectively perform them. Moreover, volunteers on management committees have limited interaction with social service organisations professionals and are therefore secluded from learning and building their own capacity.

Social service professionals tend to be far removed from the management tasks of organisations and therefore shy away from the management. For social work management to flourish, social service professionals need ongoing engagement with management.

Volunteers play a very important role yet do not appreciate the enormity of their role within NPOs. Moreover, there is no employment contract between volunteers and the organisations but their role on the management committees of NPOs are legally mandated by the NPO Act of South Africa and therefore are legally binding. There is a misconception that there exists only a moral obligation for volunteers to get involved in the management tasks of NPOs, this is incorrect as the NPO Act is clear on the legally binding contract between volunteers and the organisations. More education is needed in clarifying the statutory role of volunteers in NPO governance and management.

It is a gross injustice to volunteers, who are thrust into management committees by altruistic motives, to take on statutorily binding management tasks with no support

or training. A comprehensive capacity development approach is needed to empower volunteers to fulfil their roles as governors on social service NPOs.

Social service professionals are not involved in the governance of NPOs, which leaves volunteers to manage organisations by trial and error. It is a developmental imperative for social service professionals to elevate themselves from the frontline social work and take an active role in the management and governance of social service organisations. This active role includes contribution to policy formulation of organisations, activism and advocacy for systemic policy changes and offering support to volunteers in the execution of their management tasks. The active role may help to break the binary and prevailing perception that volunteers manage organisations versus the social workers who implement projects.

Lastly, volunteers are thrust into the deep end of organisations to perform management tasks that are unfamiliar to them, ill-defined and therefore only a few management tasks are prioritised at the expense of others. In order for organisations to build institutional capacity, organisations need to clarify these tasks, build the capacity of volunteers so they are confident to occupy these positions and perform these management tasks. This is of increased importance as the NPO sector is under significant growth, there are mounting threats of regulation as well as the growing regulation of donor funds, which are key to the survival of organisations. Therefore, volunteers and indeed social service NPOs can ill afford to neglect this critical role of governance and management.

REFERENCES

ACVV. 2013. *Annual report*. ACVV National Council.

Adirondack, S. 2006. *Just about managing? Effective management for voluntary organizations and community groups***.** London: Voluntary Service Council.

African Grantmakers Network. 2013. *Sizing the field: frameworks for a new narrative of African philanthropy.* Gauteng: Southern African Trust.

Anheier, H.K. 2000. *Managing non-profit organisations: towards a new approach. Working Paper 1*. United Kingdom: Centre for Civil Society.

Anheir, H. K. 2005. *Non-profit organisations: theory, management, policy*. New York: Routledge Publishers.

Austin, D. 2002. *Human services management: organisational leadership in social work practice*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. 2006. *The practice of social research South African edition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Barber, J.G. 1991. *Beyond casework*. Hong King: Macmillan.

Baron, A., & Armstrong, M. 2007. *Human capital management: achieving added value through people.* London: Kogan Publishers.

Bernard, J. M., & Goodyear, R. K. 2009. *Fundamentals of clinical supervision.* Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Merrill/Pearson.

Bezeley, P. 2007. *Qualitative data analysis with Nvivo*. London: Sage Publications.

Bontis, N., Dragonetti, N.C., Jacobson K., & Roos, G. 1999. The knowledge toolbox: a review of the tools available to measure and manage intangible resources. *European Management Journal,* 17(4), 391-401.

Botha, N.J. 2002. *Supervision and consultation in social work*. Stellenbosch: Drufoma.

Bowen, W.G. 2002. Inside the boardroom: a reprise. In: V. Futter, J.A. Cion, & D. Overton, (eds) *Non-profit governance and management.* United States of America: American Bar Association.

Branine, M. 2011. *Managing across cultures: concepts, policies and practices.* London: Sage Publications.

Breitbarth, T., Walzel, S., Anagnostopoulos, C. & van Eekeren, F. 2015. Corporate social responsibility and governance in sport: 'Oh, the things you can find, if you don't stay behind!' *Corporate Governance: The International Journal of Business in Society,* 15(2), 1-28.

Brody, R. 1993. *Effectively managing human service organisations.* California: Sage Publications.

Bronfenbrenner, U. 1977. Toward an experimental ecology of human development. *American Psychology,* 1997, 513-531.

Brown, L.D. & Kalegaonkar, A. 2002. Support organisations and the evolution of the NGO sector. *Non-profit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly,* 31(2), 231-258.

Brown, W.A. 2005. Exploring the association between Board and organisational performance in non-profit organizations. *Non-profit Management & Leadership, 15(3),* 317-339.

Chait, R. P., Ryan, W. P., & Taylor, B. E. 2004. *Governance as leadership: Reframing the work of non-profit boards.* New York: John Wiley.

Chandan, U.,Cambanis, E., Bhana, A., Boyce, G., Makoae, M., Mukoma, W. & Phakati, S. 2008. *Evaluation of My Future is My Choice (MFMC) peer education life skills programme in Namibia: identifying strengths, weaknesses, and areas of improvement.* Windhoek: UNICEF Namibia.

Chen, T. F. 2015. An Innovative Business Model in NPOs: From Venture Philanthropy 1.0 to 2.0. In T. Chen (Ed.), *Implementing New Business Models in For-Profit and Non-Profit Organizations: Technologies and Applications.* Hershey, PA: Information Science Reference. doi:10.4018/978-1-60960-129-4.ch009

Clary, E. G., & M. Snyder. 1991. A Functional analysis of altruism and prosocial behavior: the case of volunteerism. *Review of Personality and Social Psychology*. London/New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Coleman, J.S. 1986. Social theory, social research, and a theory of action. *American Journal of Sociology,* 91(6), 1309-1335.

Cornforth, C. 2003. *The governance of public and non-profit organisations*. New York: Routledge.

Creswell, J.W. 2003. *Research Design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approache*s. London: Sage Publications.

Curtis, L., Edwards, C., Fraser, K.L., Gudelsky, S., Holmquist, J., Thornton, K., & Sweetser, K.D. 2009. Adoption of social media for public relations by non-profit organisations. *Public Relations Review*, 36(2010), 90-92.

Daft, R.L. & Steers, R. 1986. *Organisations: a micro/macro approach*. United States of America: Foresman and Company.

Damon, M.L. 2007. *Management of volunteers at the Cape Town Association for the Physically Disabled.* Masters dissertation in Social Work, Stellenbosch University.

Dart, R., Bradshaw, P., Murray, V. & Wolpin, J. 1996. Boards of Directors in non-profit organisations: do they follow a life-cycle model? *Non-profit Management & Leadership,* 6(4), 367-379.

Davenport, T.O. 1999. *Human Capital*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Davids, I. & Theron, F. 2014. *Development, the state and civil society in South Africa.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Davids, I. 2005. The strategic role of development NGOs. In: Davids, I., Theron, F., Mapunye, K.J. *Participatory development in South Africa: a development management perspective*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Davis, A. 2003. Public relations and news sources. In Cottle, S. (ed) *News, public relations and power*. London: Sage Publications.

Daymon, C., & Holloway, I. 2011. *Qualitative research methods in public relations and communications.* New York: Routledge.

De Jager, M. 2014. Human resources management tasks. In: Engelbrecht, L.K. (ed) *Management and supervision of social workers: Issues and challenges within a social development paradigm.* Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA Limited.

De V Smit, A. 2014. Financial resources management tasks. In: Engelbrecht, L.K. (ed) *Management and supervision of social workers: Issues and challenges within a social development paradigm.* Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA Limited.

De Vos, A.S. 2005. Qualitative data analysis and interpretation. In: De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at grassroots for the social sciences and human service professions* (3rd ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Department of Social Development. 2009. *Developing good governance practices within the South African NPO sector: summary report.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Social Development. 2010. *Governance practices of national non-profit bodies and national networking organisations in South Africa.* Pretoria: Government Press.

Department of Social Development. 2011. *Financial awards for non-profit organisations.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Social Development. 2012a. *National NPO summit: transformation of welfare services sector (14-17 Aug 2012).* [Online] Available: http://www.dsd.gov.za/npo/index2.php?option=com_docman&task=doc_view&gid=133&Itemid=39

Department of Social Development. 2012b. *State of South African non-profit organisations issued in terms of Non-profit Act 71 of 1997.* Pretoria: Department of Social Development.

Department of Social Development. 2012c. *Proposed Amendments to the Non-Profit Organisations Act, Act 71 of 1997.* Pretoria: Department of Social Development.

Department of Social Development. 2013. *Presentation by Department of Social Development: Non-profit Organisations Chief Directorate.* Pretoria: Department of Social Development.

Dominelli, L. 2010. *Social Work in a globalising world*. Great Britain: Polity Press.

Donaldson, L. 1990. The ethereal hand: organisational economics and management theory. *Academy of Management Review,* 15(3), 369-381.

Drucker, P. 1986. *Management tasks, responsibilities, practices.* New York: Truman Talley Books.

Drucker, P. F. 1990. What Business Can Learn from Non-profits. *Harvard Business Review,* July–Aug (1989) 88-93.

Dunphy, D., Griffiths, A., & Benn, S. 2007. *Organisational change for corporate sustainability*. 2nd edition. London: Routledge.

Dwyer, P.C., Bono, E.B., Snyder, M., Nov, O. & Berson, Y. 2013. Sources of volunteer motivation: transformational leadership and personal motives influence volunteer outcomes. *Non-profit Management & Leadership*, 24(2), 181-205.

Dyck, B. & Neubert. M.J. 2009. *Principles of management, 2nd edition*. Canada: South-Western Cengage Learning.

Eadie, D.C., 1998. Planning and managing strategically. *Skills for effective Management of Non-profit organizations*, 453-468.

Ellis, H. 2012. *Conceptualisation of the community and community knowledge among community radio volunteers in Katutura, Namibia.* Masters dissertation in Journalism and Media Studies, Rhodes University.

Engelbrecht, L. & Terblanche, L. 2014. Schools of thought in management. In: Engelbrecht, L.K. (ed) *Management and supervision of social workers: Issues and challenges within a social development paradigm.* Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA Limited.

Engelbrecht, L.K. (ed). 2014. Management and supervision of social workers: Issues and challenges within a social development paradigm. In: Engelbrecht, L.K. (ed) *Management and supervision of social workers: Issues and challenges within a social development paradigm.* Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA Limited.

Eriksen, S.S. 2002 (December). Globalisation and Development. In: *Forum for Development Studies* (pp. 423-424). The Norwegian Association for Development Research.

European Commission. 2001. *Green Paper 'Promoting a European Framework for corporate social responsibility*. COM (2001) 366.

Everatt, D., Habib, A., Maharaj, B., & Nyar, A. 2005. Patterns of giving in South Africa. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Non-profit Organisations*, 16 (3), 275-291.

Fama, E.F., Jensen, M.C. 1983. Separation of ownership and control. *Journal of Law and Economics*, 26, 301-325.

Farnham, D. 2015. *Human resources management in context: insights, strategy and solutions.* London: Charted Institute of Personnel and Development.

Fayol, H. 1949. *General and industrial management.* London: Publishing Corporation.

Fouche, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. 2005a. Introduction to the research process. In: De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L (eds). *Research at grassroots*

for the social sciences and human service professions (3rd ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fouche, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. 2005b. In-depth review of literature. In: De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at grassroots for the social sciences and human service professions* (3rd ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fouche, C.B. 20062005. Writing the research proposal. In: De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at grassroots for the social sciences and human service professions* (3rd ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Freeman, R.E. 1984. *Strategic management: a stakeholder approach*. Boston: Pitman.

Germain, C.B. & Gitterman, A. 1995. Ecological perspective. In R.L Edwards (ed). *Encyclopaedia of Social Work,* 19(1), 816-24. Washington, DC: NASW Press.

Goldkind, L., & Pardasani, M. 2013. Social workers as senior executives: does academic training dictate leadership style. *Advances in Social Work* 14(2), 573-593.

Gray, M. & Mazibuko, F. 2002. Social work in South Africa at the dawn of the new millennium. *International Journal of Social Welfare,* 11, 191-200.

Gray, M. 2005. The progress of social development in South Africa. *International Journal of Social Welfare,* 15(1), 53-64.

Gray, M. 2010. Social development and the status quo: professionalization and Third Way co-option. *International Journal of Social Welfare, 19 (2010),* 463-470.

Greeff, M. 2005. Information collection: interviewing. In: De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at grassroots for the social sciences and human service professions* (3rd ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Greenberg, J. & MacAulay, M. 2009. NPO 2.0? Exploring the web presence of environmental non-profit organisations in Canada. *Global Media Journal*, 2(1), 63-88.

Grobman, G.M. 2008. *The Non-profit Handbook: everything you need to know to start and run your nonprofit organisation (5th edition).* Harrisburg: White Hat Communications.

Guest, D. 1987. Human resource management and industrial relations. *Journal of Management Studies,* 24(5), 503-521.

Guo, C. 2007. When government becomes the principal philanthropist: the effects of public funding on patterns of non-profit governance. *Public Administration Review (May),* 458- 473.

Habib, A. & Taylor, R. 1999. South Africa: anti-apartheid NGOs in transition. *Voluntus: International Journal of Voluntary and Non-profit Organisations,* 10(1), 73-82.

Habib, A. 2005. State-Civil Society Relations in Post-Apartheid South Africa. *Social Research,* 72(3), 671-692.

Habib, A., & Kotze, H. 2003. Civil society, governance and development in an era of globalisation: The South African case. In: Mhone, G. & Edigheji, O. (eds) *Governance in the new South Africa: the challenges of globalisation*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

Habib, A., Taylor, R. 1999. South Africa: Anti-apartheid NGOs in transition. *International Journal of Voluntary and Non-profit Organizations,* 10(1):73-82.

Hadina, D., Middleton, J., Montana, S. & Simpson, R. 2007. *An empowerment approach to managing social service organisations*. New York: Springer Publishing Company.

Hafford-Letchfield, T. 2007. *Management and organisations in social work.* Exeter: Learning Matters Ltd.

Hax, A. & Majluf, N. 1996. The strategy concept and process: a pragmatic approach. London: Prentice Hall.

Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S.E., Slocum, J., Staude, G., Amos, T., Klopper, H.B., Louw, L., & Ooshuizen, T. 2008. *Management, third South African edition*. Southern Africa: Oxford University Press.

Herbst, A. 2014. Programme and Project management tasks. In: Engelbrecht, L.K. (ed) *Management and supervision of social workers: Issues and challenges within a social development paradigm.* Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA Limited.

Hiland, M. 2015. The board chair-executive director relationship. Dynamics that create value for non-profit organisations. *Organisational Practitioner,* 47 (1), 37-43.

Hitt, M., Ireland, D., & Hoskisson, R. 2009. *Strategic management.* 8th edition. Mason, OH: Southern-Western/Cengage Learning.

Howe, F. 2002. Non-profit accountability: the board's fiduciary responsibility. Inside the boardroom: a reprise. In: V. Futter, J.A. Cion, & D. Overton, (eds) *Non-profit governance and management.* United States of America: American Bar Association.

Hughes, M. & Wearing, M. 2007. *Organisations and management in social work.* London: Sage Publications.

Hung, H. 1998. A typology of the theories of the roles of governing boards. *Corporate Governance-An International Review*, 6(2), 101, 111.

Hunter, K. & Ross, E. 2013. Stipend-paid volunteers in South Africa: a euphemism for low-paid work? *Development in Southern Africa*, 30 (6), 743-759.

Inyathelo. 2012. *The Independent Code of Governance for Non-profit Organisations in South Africa.* South Africa: Working Group on The Independent Code of Governance for Non-profit Organisations in South Africa.

Inyathelo. 2014. *A new NPO Act for South Africa: the implications of the proposed new review policy framework for South African civil society.* South Africa: Inyathelo: The South African Institute for Advancement.

Kelly, K., Rau, A. & Stern, E. 2010. *Community entry points: Opportunities and strategies for engaging community-supported HIV/AIDS prevention responses.* Johannesburg: CADRE/GFATM.

Kinicki, A. & Williams, B.K. 2009. *Management: a practical introduction, 4th edition*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Kong, E. 2007. The development of strategic management in the non-profit context: the intellectual capital in social service non-profit organisations*. International Journal of Management Reviews (2008)* doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2370.2007.00224.x

Kreitner, R. 2008. *Principles of management.* Boston: Cengage Learning.

Kreutzer, K. 2009. Non-profit governance during organisational transition in voluntary associations*. Non-profit Management & Leadership,* 20(1), 117-133.

Krugell, W. 2010. Who are the good Samaritans? Characteristics of volunteers in South Africa. *Tydskrif vir Geesteswetenskappe,* 50 (2), 187-196.

Lan, H. 2015. On the influence of voluntary social activities on improving college students' practical ability. *EDP Sciences,* DOI: 10.1051/shsconf/20151702004

Letts, C.W., Ryan, P.R., & Grossman, A. 1999. *High performance non-profit organisations: managing upstream for greater impact.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Lewis, D. 1978. Management in the service non-profit social service organisation. In Slavin, S. (ed) *Social Administration: the management of the social services.* New York: The Haworth Press.

Lewis, D. 2007. *The management of non-governmental development organisations.* London: Routledge.

Lewis, J., Packard, T. & Lewis, M. 2012. *Management of Human Service Programmes.* Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA Limited.

Lincoln, Y. & Guba, E. 1985*. Naturalistic Inquiry.* Beverly Hills: Sage.

Lombard, A. 2008. Implementing the White Paper for Social Welfare. *The Social Work Practitioner-Researcher*, 20 (2), 154-173.

Lombard, A. 2015. A developmental perspective in social work theory and practice. In: Spitzer, H., Twikirize, J.M. & Wairire, G.G.(eds) *Professional social work in East Africa: towards social development, poverty reduction and gender equality.* Kampala: Fountain Publishers.

Luhman, J.T., & Cunliffe, A.L. 2013. *Key concepts in organisational theory.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Mace, M. 1971. *Directors: myth and reality.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Marshall, J.H., & Suarez, D. 2014. The flow of management practices: an analysis of monitoring and evaluation dynamics. *Non-profit Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 43(6), 1033-1051.

Martens, K. 2002. Mission impossible? Defining nongovernmental organisations. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organisations*, 13 (1), 271-285.

Mashale, R., Kelly, K., Motuba, T. & Myers, L. 2012. *TESTING TIMES: A Review of HIV Counselling and Testing within Sports Development Programmes for young people in Southern Africa.* Johannesburg and Cape Town: CADRE.

Mathiasen, K. 1990. *Board passages: three key stages in a nonprofit board's life cycle.* Washington, D.C.: National Center for Nonprofit Boards.

Mazibuko, F. & Gray, M. 2004. Social work professional associations in South Africa. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 47 (1), 129-142.

McKendrick, B.W. 1998. Social Work education and training: from preparing for apartheid society to training for developing democracy. *Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk,* 34(1), 99-111.

Midgley, J. 1995. *Social Development: The Developmental Perspective in Social Welfare.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Midgley, J. 2001. South Africa: the challenge of social development. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 10, 267-275.

Mintzberg, H. 1980. *The nature of managerial work.* London: Prentice Hall.

National Planning Commission (NPC). 2012. *National Development Plan 2030: Our future – Make it work.* Pretoria: The Presidency.

Nedbank Private Wealth. 2013. *The Giving Report II: A survey on the giving practices of high-net-worth individuals in South Africa.* South Africa: Nedbank Limited.

Nel, H. 2014. Management functions. In: Engelbrecht, L.K. (ed) *Management and supervision of social workers: Issues and challenges within a social development paradigm*. Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA Limited.

Norton, M., & Culshaw, M. 2000. *Getting started in fundraising.* London: Sage Publications.

O'Brien, C. 2005. Integrated community development/conflict resolution strategies as 'peace building potential' in South Africa and Northern Ireland. *Community Development Journal*, 42 (1), 114-130.

Ogliastri, E., Jager, U.P., & Prado, A.M. 2015. Strategy and structure in high performing non-profits: insights from Iberoamerican cases. *Voluntas,* DOI 10.1007/s11266-015-9560-8.

Oliver, D. G., Serovich, J.M. & Mason, T.L. 2005. Constraints and opportunities with interview transcription: towards reflection in qualitative research. *Soc Forces,* 84(2), 1273-1289.

Paiva, J. 1977. A conception of social development. *Social Service Review*, 51(2), 327-336.

Parsons, T. 1951. *Social systems*. England: Routledge.

Parsons, T. 1985. *Talcott Parsons on institutions and social evolution: selected writings.* USA: University of Chicago Press.

Patel, L. & Hochfeld, T. 2008. Indicators, barriers and strategies to accelerate the pace of change to developmental welfare in South Africa. *The Social Work Practitioner-Researcher*, 20 (2), 192-211.

Patel, L. & Wilson, T. 2003. A perspective on the transformation of social welfare (1994-2002). *The Social Work Practitioner-Researcher*, 15(3), 219-232.

Patel, L. 2005. *Social welfare and social development in South Africa.* Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Patel, L. 2008. Getting it Right and Wrong: An overview of a decade of Post-apartheid social welfare. *Practice: Social Work in Action,* 20 (2), 71-81.

Patel, L. 2009. *The gendered character of social care in the non-profit sector in South Africa.* Geneva: UNRISD.

Patel, L. 2014. Social Development, management and supervision of social workers. In: Engelbrecht, L.K. (ed) *Management and supervision of social workers: Issues and challenges within a social development paradigm*. Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA Limited.

Patel, L., Hochfeld, T., Graham, L., & Selipsky, L. 2008. *The implementation of the White Paper for Social Welfare in the NGO Sector: research report*. University of Johannesburg: Centre for Social Development in Africa.

Patel, L., Schmid, J., & Hochfeld, T. 2012. Transforming social work services in South Africa: perspectives of NPO managers. *Administration in Social Work*, 36(2), 212-230.

Paull, M. & Omari, M. 2015. Dignity and Respect: Important in volunteer settings too! *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: International Journal,* 34(3), 1-14.

Payne, M. 1997. *Modern social work theory, second edition*. Hampshire: Palgrave.

Pfeffer, J. & Salancik, G.R. 1978. *The external control of organisations: a resource dependence perspective.* New York: Harper Collins.

Pincus, A., & Minahan, A. 1973. *Social work practice: model and method*. Michigan: F.E. Peacock.

Potgieter, M.C. 2006. *The social work process: development to empower people.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Pretorius, E. 2014. Essential management tasks. In: Engelbrecht, L.K. (ed) *Management and supervision of social workers: Issues and challenges within a social development paradigm.* Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA Limited.

Price Water Coopers. 2009. *King Report III on Governance for South Africa*. South Africa: Johannesburg.

Pryce, H., Hall, A., & Gooberman-Hill, R. 2015. The role of volunteer support in the community for adults with hearing loss and hearing aids. *Patient Education and Counseling* (2015), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2015.04.005

Quinn, J.B. 1980. *Strategies for change.* Irwin: Homewood, IL.

Rankin, P. & Engelbrecht, L.K. 2014. The context of management in social service organisations. In: Engelbrecht, L.K. (ed) *Management and supervision of social workers: Issues and challenges within a social development paradigm.* Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA Limited.

Renz, D. O. 2004. An Overview of Non-profit Governance. In D. F. Burlingame (ed.), *Philanthropy in America*. Santa Barbara, Calif.: ABC-CLIO, 2004

Republic of South Africa. 1995. *Labour Relations Act.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. 1997a. *White Paper for Social Welfare.* Pretoria: Department of Social Welfare.

Republic of South Africa. 1997b. *Non-profit Organisations Act 71 (18487).* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. 1997c. *Basic Conditions of Employment Act.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. 1997d. *National Lotteries Act*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. 1998a. *Employment Equity Act.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. *1997c. Basic Conditions of Employment Act.* Pretoria: Government Press.

Republic of South Africa. 1998. *Skills Development Act.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. 1998b. *National Development Agency Act***.** Pretoria: National Development Agency.

Republic of South Africa. 2000. *Amended Labour Relations Act*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. 2002. *Basic Conditions of Employment Amendment Act.* Pretoria: Department of Labour.

Republic of South Africa. 2003**.** *Municipal Finance Act.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. 2004. *South African Social Security Agency Act.* Pretoria: Department of Social Development.

Republic of South Africa. 2005. *Taxation Laws Amendment Act.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. 2006. *Older Persons Act.* Pretoria: Department of Justice and Constitutional Development.

Republic of South Africa. 2007. *Children's Amendment Act.* Pretoria: Department of Social Development.

Republic of South Africa. 2008. *The Companies Act 71 of 2008 as amended*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. 2013a. *Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Amendment Act of 2003*. Pretoria: Government Press.

Republic of South Africa. 2013b. *The Lotteries Amendment Bill.* Pretoria: National Lottery Distribution Trust Fund.

Reyneke, R . 2014. Management skills. In: Engelbrecht, L.K. (ed) *Management and supervision of social workers: Issues and challenges within a social development paradigm*. Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA Limited.

Roller, M.R. & Lavrakas, P.J. 2015. *Applied qualitative research design: a total quality framework approach.* London: The Guilford Press.

Rothaermel, F. 2013. *Strategic management concepts and cases.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Ryan, W.P. 2002. The new landscape for non-profits. In: V. Futter, J.A. Cion, & D. Overton, (eds) *Non-profit governance and management.* United States of America: American Bar Association.

Ryan, W.P.1999. Is That All There Is? Searching for More Useful Governance Strategies Beyond the Board Room. *The New England Nonprofit Quarterly*, 6 (2), 7–15.

Said, J., Jaafar N.H., & Atan, R. 2015. Assessing accountability in government linked companies: an empirical evidence. *International Business Management, 9(4), 460*-469.

Salamon, L.M. & e, H.K. 1996. *The International Classification of Non-profit Organizations: ICNPO-Revision 1, 1996.* Working Papers of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Non-profit Sector Project, no. 19. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Institute for Policy Studies.

Samuel, O., Wolf, P. & Schilling, A. 2013. Corporate volunteering: benefits and challenges for non-profits. *Non-profit Management and Leadership*, 24(2), 163-179.

Sanzo-Perez, M.J., lvarez-Gonzalez, L.I., Rey-Garcia, M. 2015. How to encourage social innovations: a resource-based approach. *The Service Industries Journal,* DIO: 10.1080/02642069.2015.1015517.

Scholte, J.A. 2004. Civil society and democratically accountable global governance. *Global Governance*, 8(3), 281-304.

Schultz, T.W. 1961. Investment in human capital. *American Economic Review,* 51 (March), 1-17.

Scott. W. R. 2015. Organizational theory and higher education. *Journal of Organizational Theory in Education 1*(1). Retrieved from www.organizationaltheoryineducation.com.

Smit, P.J., & Cronje, G.J. 1999. *Management principles: a contemporary edition for Africa.* South Africa: Juta Publishers.

Smith Lunsford, S., Fatta, K., Stover, K.E., & Shrestha, R. 2015. Supporting close-to-community providers through a community health system approach: case examples from Ethiopia and Tanzania. *Human Resources for Health,* 13(12), 2-9.

Snyder, M., & Omoto, A. 2008. Volunteerism: Social issues perspectives and social policy implications. *Social Issues and Policy Review*, 2, 1–36.

Spolander, G., & Martin, L. 2012. *Successful project management in social work and social care. Managing resources, assessing risks and measuring outcomes.* London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Statistics South Africa. 2011. *Volunteer Activities Survey, 2010/Statistics South Africa.* Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Statistics South Africa. 2014a. *Mid-year population estimates: June 2014.* Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Statistics South Africa. 2014b. *Statistics of the non-profit sector for South Africa, 2011.* Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Stead, J.G. & Stead, W.E. 2014. *Sustainable strategic management*. New York: M.E. Sharpe.

Stephenson, M.O., Schnitzer, M.H., & Arroyave, V.M. 2009. Non-profit governance, management and organizational learning: exploring the implications of one "Mega-Gift". *The American Review of Public Administration*, 39(1), 43-59.

Strydom, H. 2005a. Writing the research report. In: De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at grassroots for the social sciences and human service professions* (3rd ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Strydom, H. 2005b. Sampling and methods. In: De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at grassroots for the social sciences and human service professions* (3rd ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Strydom, H. 2005c. The pilot study. In: De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at grassroots for the social sciences and human service professions* (3rd ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Strydom,H. 2005d. Ethical Aspects of research in the social sciences and human service professions. In: De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at grassroots for the social sciences and human service professions* (3rd ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Swilling, M. & Russell, B. 2001. *The size and scope of the non-profit sector in South Africa.* Durban: University of Natal.

Swilling, M., Russell, B., & Habib, A. 2002. *The size and scope of the non-profit sector in South Africa.* Johannesburg, South Africa, Graduate School of Public and Development Management, University of the Witwatersrand.

Teddlie, C. & Tashakkori, A. 2009. *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences.* California: Sage Publications Inc.

The Treasury. 1999. *Public Finance Management Act.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Tsepko, K. 2015. The new frontier of governance in Africa. *The Public Sphere Journal*, 2015, 71-83.

Umhlaba Development Services. 2005. *Developing Good Governance Practices within the South African NPO Sector: A Benchmark Study Report.* A report commissioned by the Department of Social Development. Accessed at http://www.dsd.gov.za/npo/dmdocuments/NPO%20Impact%20Assesnt.pdf

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2009. *Governance Indicators: A User's Guide (2nd ed.). Oslo*: Oslo Governance Centre.

Van Rensburg, S.M. 2012. *'n Bemagtigingsprogrammes vir personeel en afgetrede vrywilligers van dienssentrums vir bejaardes.* PhD dissertation in Social Work, North-West University (Potcherstroom Campus).

Visser, W. 2004. Shifting RDP into GEAR. The ANC government's dilemma in providing an equitable system of social security for the 'new' South Africa. *Development of Social Security Systems*, 2005, 105-124.

Weber, M. 1947. *The theory of social and economic organisation.* New York: Free Press.

Weinbach, R.W. 2003. *The social worker as a manager: a practical guide to success.* Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

Welman, C., Kruger, F. & Mitchell, B. 2008. *Research methodology. Third Edition*. Southern Africa: Oxford University Press.

Weyers, M. 2011. *The theory and practice of community work: a South African perspective.* Potchefstroom: Keurkopie Publishers.

Whitley, R. 1989. On the nature of managerial tasks and skills: their distinguishing characteristics and organisation. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 209-225.

Wood, M. 1992. Is governing board behavior cyclical? *Non-profit Management and Leadership*, 3 (2), 139-163.

Wyatt, M. 2004. *A handbook of NGO governance.* Hungary: European Center for non-for-profit law.

Wyngaard, R. 2009. *Policy Framework on NPO Law*. Electronic newsletter accessed at http://nonprofitlawyer.co.za/Newsletter/ [accessed on 10.02.2015.]

Wyngaard, R. 2013. *The South African NPO crisis- time to join hands.* Accessed at: http://www.nonprofitlawyer.co.za/media/c50963f61787836dffff805c7f000101.pdf [accessed on 10.02.2015.]

Young, D. R. and Salamon, L. M. 2003. Commercialization, social ventures, and for-profit competition. In L. M. Salamon (ed.) *The State of Non-profit America*. Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution, pp. 423–46.

Young, D.R., Koenig, B.L., Najam A., & Fisher, J. 1999. Strategy and structures in managing global associations. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary Non-profit Organisations,* 10 (4), 323-343.

APPENDICES

Annexure 1: Fieldwork budget

In local currency ***ZAR***

Proposed Funding

Item	Rate	/Unit	Units	Amount
Administration				
Telephone and internet	1500	/site	1	1 500.00
Printing	400	/site	1	400.00
Fax	250	/site	1	250.00
Total Administration costs				**2 150.00**
Travel & Transportation	Rate	/Unit	Units	Amount
Western Cape				
Car hire	200	/day	30	6 000.00
Fuel	150	/day	30	4500.00
Total Travel & Transportation				**10 500.00**
Copy Editing				
Copy editing	9000		1	9 000.00
Thesis printing	4000		1	**4000**
Total editing costs				**13 000.00**
TOTAL COST				**25 650.00**

The researcher was responsible for the full research budget of R25 650 in her personal capacity. The researcher received the South African Humanities Deans Award bursary, which covered all costs related to the research. The research participants were not required to pay any costs related to the research.

Annexure 2: Request to conduct research letter

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

ESSENTIAL MANAGEMENT TASKS PERFORMED BY VOLUNTEERS ON MANAGEMENT COMMITTEES OF NON-PROFIT ORGANISATIONS

Dear Sir/Madam (use names where available)

RE: REQUEST PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT YOUR ORGANISATION

You are requested to participate in a research investigation conducted by Rethabile Mashale (student number: 18582249) entitled "*Essential management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of non-profit organisations*" registered for a PhD (Social Work) in the Department of Social Work at Stellenbosch University. The research study will contribute to a research dissertation under the supervision of Professor Lambert Engelbrecht at the Department of Social Work at Stellenbosch University.

You are one of thirty (30) participants that have been selected as a possible participant for the research study because of your role as a volunteer on the management committee or a social service professional in management in the organisation.

The study focuses on NPOs located in the Western Cape, offering a social development service to individuals and communities. The study aims to gain an understanding of the management tasks of volunteers serving on management committees of registered social service non-profit organisations. If you volunteer to participate in the study you will be asked to do the following:

1. Make yourself available for a one-on-one interview which should not be longer than 60 minutes, on a date and time that is mutually agreed,

2. Should you require any further information about the research you can contact the researcher via email at ritsie02@gmail.com or on 073 166 9326.

I request permission to conduct the proposed study in your organisation with you as a volunteer performing management task of the organisation. The study has ethical

clearance from Stellenbosch University's Departmental Ethics Screening Committee (number the ethics: SU-HSD-001787) and the ethics of the study will be further explained as per the attached Informed Consent Form.

Sincerely,

Rethabile Mashale

Annexure 3: Informed consent form for volunteers

INFORMED CONSENT FORM: VOLUNTEERS

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

This study is for academic purposes for the partial fulfilment of a Doctoral Degree. The purpose is to explore the essential management tasks of volunteers in management positions in registered social service non-profit organisations within the South African context.

PROCEDURES

Should you agree to participate in the research study, you will be asked to do the following:

- Grant the researcher permission for the interview to be conducted in person and recorded using an audio tape recorder.
- Make yourself available for an interview lasting approximately 60 minutes at an agreed time and date in a room at your venue.
- Indicate should you feel any discomfort during the interview and may leave at any time during the interview if you wish to do so.
- Answer the questions honestly and openly with the understanding that you may pose questions for clarification at any time.
- You may draw consent at any time of the study without providing any reason if you wish to do so.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

The researcher will carry the cost of the research and no costs will be expected from the participant or the organisation. Furthermore, participants will not receive payment from the researcher for their participation in the study.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

No harm is foreseen during or after the research. The research is not highly personal, and is considered low-risk in terms of ethical considerations. All audio recordings will be regarded as confidential, no names or personal details of participants will be included in the research report.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The information that will be obtained during the study will not be connected to your personal details in any way. Participants' names will not be used in the research report. The data will be stored in the researcher's home office, which no one has access to, therefore, ensuring confidentiality.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. If you volunteer to participate in the study you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind to you or the organisation. The researcher may withdraw you from the research if circumstances warrant doing so. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research respondent, please contact Ms Maléne Fouché (mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622) at the Division for Research Development, Stellenbosch University.

IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research please contact the researcher's supervisor, Professor Lambert Engelbrecht (021 808 2073), at the Department of Social Work, Stellenbosch University. Alternatively, you may contact the researcher on 073 166 9326 or via email on ritsie02@gmail.com.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT

The researcher, Rethabile Mashale, described the contents above to (name)_____. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent to voluntarily participate in this study an on this date_____/_____/_____

Full name of participant_____ Signature of participant_____

I declare that I explained the above information given in this document to the participant. She/he was given sufficient opportunity to ask any questions.

_____

Signature of investigator

Annexure 4: Informed consent form for social service professionals

INFORMED CONSENT FORM: PROFESSIONAL STAFF

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

This study is for academic purposes for the partial fulfilment of a Doctoral Degree. The purpose is to explore the essential management tasks of volunteers in management positions in registered social service non-profit organisations within the South African context.

PROCEDURES

Should you agree to participate in the research study, you will be asked to do the following:

- Grant the researcher permission for the interview to be conducted in person and recorded using an audio tape recorder.
- Make yourself available for an interview lasting approximately 60 minutes at an agreed time and date in a room at your venue.
- Indicate should you feel any discomfort during the interview and may leave at any time during the interview if you wish to do so.
- Answer the questions honestly and openly with the understanding that you may pose questions for clarification at any time.
- You may draw consent at any time of the study without providing any reason if you wish to do so.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

The researcher will carry the cost of the research and no costs will be expected from the participant or the organisation. Furthermore, participants will not receive payment from the researcher for their participation in the study.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

No harm is foreseen during or after the research. The research is not highly personal, and is considered low-risk in terms of ethical considerations. All audio recordings will be regarded as confidential, no names or personal details of participants will be included in the research report.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The information that will be obtained during the study will not be connected to your personal details in any way. Participants' names will not be used in the research report. The data will be stored in the researcher's home office, which no one has access to, therefore, ensuring confidentiality.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. If you volunteer to participate in the study you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind to you or the organisation. The researcher may withdraw you from the research if circumstances warrant doing so. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research respondent, please contact Ms Maléne Fouché (mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622) at the Division for Research Development, Stellenbosch University.

IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research please contact the researcher's supervisor, Professor Lambert Engelbrecht (021 808 2073), at the Department of Social Work, Stellenbosch University. Alternatively, you may contact the researcher on 073 166 9326 or via email on ritsie02@gmail.com.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT

The researcher, Rethabile Mashale, described the contents above to (name)_____. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent to voluntarily participate in this study an on this date_____/_____/_____

Full name of participant_____ Signature of participant_____

I declare that I explained the above information given in this document to the participant. She/he was given sufficient opportunity to ask any questions.

_____

Signature of investigator

Annexure 5: Interview schedule for NPO volunteers

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR NPO VOLUNTEERS

ESSENTIAL MANAGEMENT TASKS PERFORMED BY VOLUNTEERS ON MANAGEMENT COMMITTEES OF NON-PROFIT ORGANISATIONS

SECTION ONE: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Gender……..

Age:……Race:……..

Position in the organisation (NPO):……Years in the position:……..

Highest qualification:……

What is your profession obtained?……

How, and by whom, were you recruited for this volunteer position?

What keeps you motivated to remain in the volunteer position?

Please describe the work and contribution of the organisation to society?

Are you currently employed else? If yes, in what industry and what position?

If not employed, what is your reason for not being employed?

SECTION TWO: MANAGEMENT TASKS

1. Describe your role in the organisation/management committee?
2. What do you think are essential management tasks regarding your position in the organisation?

Probe: Can you provide examples of this?

3. Do you perform strategic planning? If yes, how?

Probe: Can you provide examples of this?

4. Do you perform human resource management? If yes, how?

Probe: Can you provide examples of this?

5. Do you perform financial management? If yes, how?

Probe: Can you provide examples of this?

6. Do you perform transformation/change management? If yes, how?

Probe: Can you provide examples of this?

7. Do you perform project management? If yes, how?

Probe: Can you provide examples of this?

8. Do you perform fundraising? If yes, how?

Probe: Can you give examples of fundraising tasks that you perform?

9. Do you perform information/communication and systems management? If yes, how?

Probe: Can you provide examples of this?

10. Do you perform monitoring and evaluation? If yes, how?

Probe: Can you provide examples of this?

11. Do you perform public relations and stakeholder management? If yes, how?

Probe: Can you provide examples of this?

SECTION THREE: RECOMMENDATIONS

12. Are there any other management tasks that you think are essential?
13. Do you have any recommendations of how you can be supported to best fulfil the tasks associate with your position?

Annexure 6: Interview schedule for social service professionals

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PROFESSIONAL INFORMANTS

ESSENTIAL MANAGEMENT TASKS PERFORMED BY VOLUNTEERS ON MANAGEMENT COMMITTEES OF NON-PROFIT ORGANISATIONS

SECTION ONE: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Gender……..Age:……Race:……

Position in the organisation (NPO):……Years in the position:……..

Highest qualification obtained:……

Please describe the work and contribution of the organisation to society?

SECTION TWO: STAFF AND VOLUNTEER INTERACTION

1. What is your role in the organisation?
2. What is your relationship with the volunteer [insert name] on the management committee, if any?

Probe: please describe and provide examples

3. How are the volunteers on the management committee selected?
4. How does the management committee function?
5. In your view, how does the performance of management tasks, by volunteers, affect the overall functioning of the organisations?
6. Describe your role in relation to the management committee.

Probe: please explain and give examples.

SECTION THREE: MANAGEMENT TASKS

- How does the aforementioned volunteer on the management committee perform strategic planning, if at all? If no, why not?

7. What is the volunteer's role in human resources management, if any? How is this task performed? If no, why not?
8. Does the volunteer do financial management? If yes, how do they perform this task? If no, why not?
9. How does the volunteer perform transformation/change management, if at all? If no, why not?
10. What is the volunteer's role in project management, if any? If none, why not?
11. How does the volunteer do fundraise management for the organisation, if any? If no, why not?
12. How does the volunteer perform information/communications and systems management, if at all? If not, why not?
13. What is the volunteer's role in monitoring and evaluation, if any? If not, why not?
14. How does the volunteer perform public relations and stakeholder management, if at all? If no, why not?
15. What other tasks, not included here, are performed by volunteers on the organisation's management committees?

Annexure 7: DESC Ethical Clearance

Approval Notice
New Application

01-Dec-2015
Mashale, Termica TR

Proposal #: SU-HSD-001787
Title: **The nature and scope of management tasks performed by volunteers on management committees of non-profit organisations**

Dear Miss Termica Mashale,

Your **New Application** received on **13-Nov-2015**, was reviewed
Please note the following information about your approved research proposal:

Proposal Approval Period: **30-Nov-2015 -29-Nov-2016**

Please take note of the general Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

Please remember to use your **proposal number** (SU-HSD-001787) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your research proposal.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

Also note that a progress report should be submitted to the Committee before the approval period has expired if a continuation is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary).

This committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research, established by the Declaration of Helsinki and the Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes 2004 (Department of Health). Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number REC-050411-032.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research.

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at 218089183.

Included Documents:
DESC Report - Williams, Rochelle
REC: Humanities New Application

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham
REC Coordinator
Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

Investigator Responsibilities

Protection of Human Research Participants

Some of the general responsibilities investigators have when conducting research involving human participants are listed below:

1. Conducting the Research. You are responsible for making sure that the research is conducted according to the REC approved research protocol. You are also responsible for the actions of all your co-investigators and research staff involved with this research. You must also ensure that the research is conducted within the standards of your field of research.

2. Participant Enrollment. You may not recruit or enroll participants prior to the REC approval date or after the expiration date of REC approval. All recruitment materials for any form of media must be approved by the REC prior to their use. If you need to recruit more participants than was noted in your REC approval letter, you must submit an amendment requesting an increase in the number of participants.

3. Informed Consent. You are responsible for obtaining and documenting effective informed consent using **only** the REC-approved consent documents, and for ensuring that no human participants are involved in research prior to obtaining their informed consent. Please give all participants copies of the signed informed consent documents. Keep the originals in your secured research files for at least five (5) years.

4. Continuing Review. The REC must review and approve all REC-approved research proposals at intervals appropriate to the degree of risk but not less than once per year. There is **no grace period.** Prior to the date on which the REC approval of the research expires, **it is your responsibility to submit the continuing review report in a timely fashion to ensure a lapse in REC approval does not occur.** If REC approval of your research lapses, you must stop new participant enrollment, and contact the REC office immediately.

5. Amendments and Changes. If you wish to amend or change any aspect of your research (such as research design, interventions or procedures, number of participants, participant population, informed consent document, instruments, surveys or recruiting material), you must submit the amendment to the REC for review using the current Amendment Form. You **may not initiate** any amendments or changes to your research without first obtaining written REC review and approval. The **only exception** is when it is necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants and the REC should be immediately informed of this necessity.

6. Adverse or Unanticipated Events. Any serious adverse events, participant complaints, and all unanticipated problems that involve risks to participants or others, as well as any research related injuries, occurring at this institution or at other performance sites must be reported to Malene Fouch within **five (5) days** of discovery of the incident. You must also report any instances of serious or continuing problems, or non-compliance with the RECs requirements for protecting human research participants. The only exception to this policy is that the death of a research participant must be reported in accordance with the Stellenbosch Universtiy Research Ethics Committee Standard Operating Procedures. All reportable events should be submitted to the REC using the Serious Adverse Event Report Form.

7. Research Record Keeping. You must keep the following research related records, at a minimum, in a secure location for a minimum of five years: the REC approved research proposal and all amendments; all informed consent documents; recruiting materials; continuing review reports; adverse or unanticipated events; and all correspondence from the REC

8. Provision of Counselling or emergency support. When a dedicated counsellor or psychologist provides support to a participant without prior REC review and approval, to the extent permitted by law, such activities will not be recognised as research nor the data used in support of research. Such cases should be indicated in the progress report or final report.

9. Final reports. When you have completed (no further participant enrollment, interactions, interventions or data analysis) or stopped work on your research, you must submit a Final Report to the REC.

10. On-Site Evaluations, Inspections, or Audits. If you are notified that your research will be reviewed or audited by the sponsor or any other external agency or any internal group, you must inform the REC immediately of the impending audit/evaluation.